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OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS



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February 27 - March 2, 1960

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TODAY'S PRIORITY**

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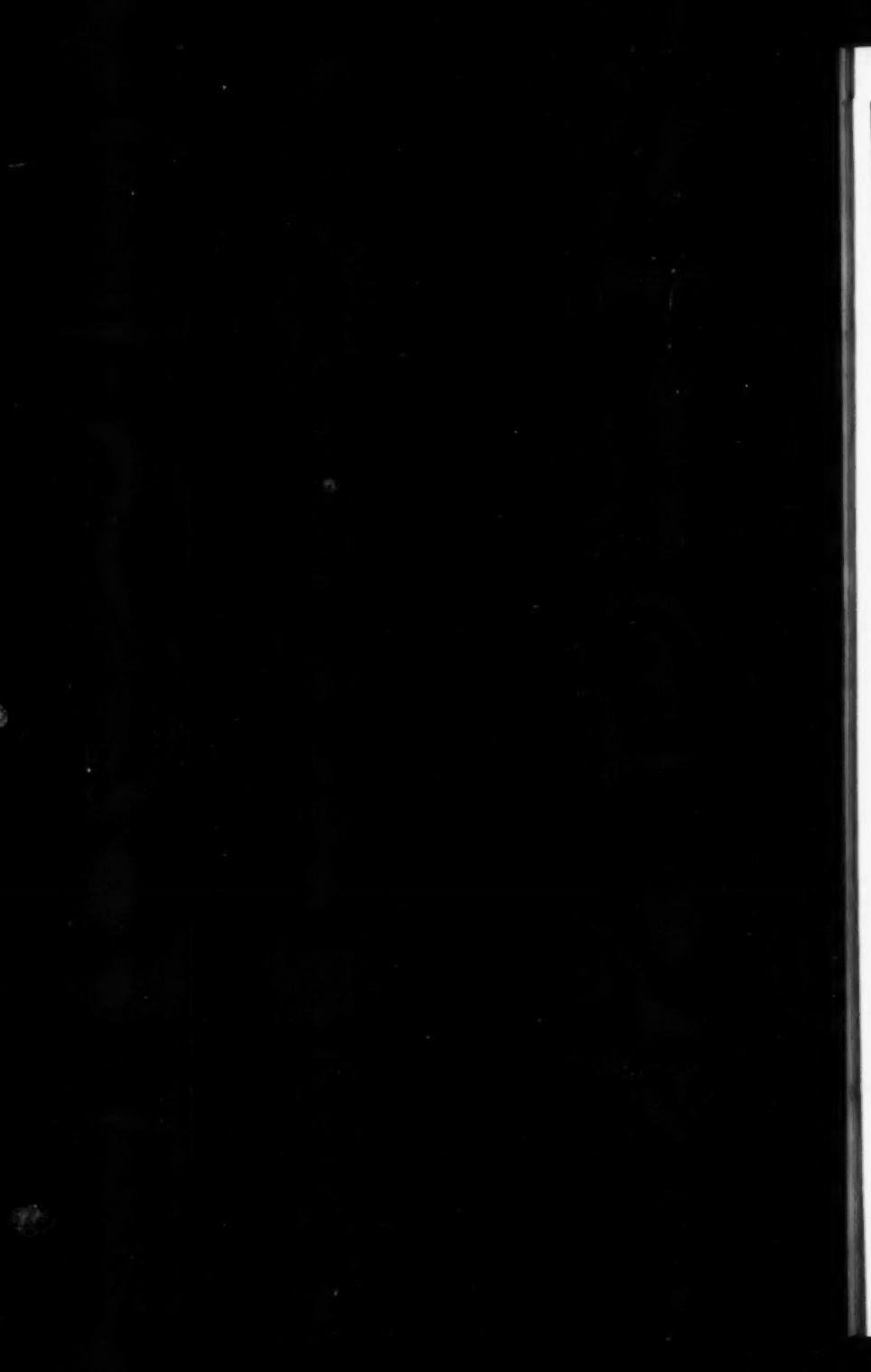
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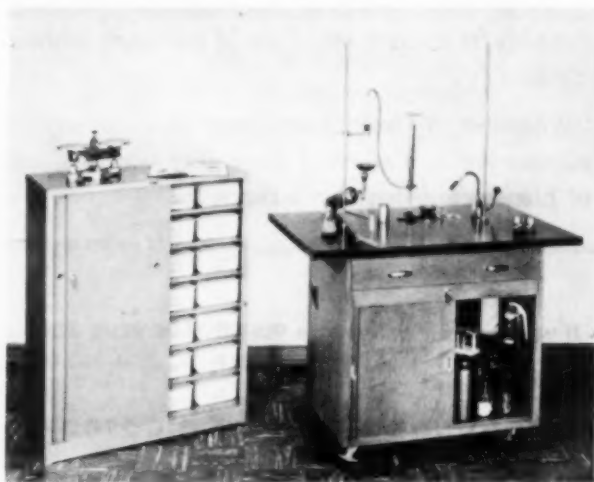
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DR. W. L. SPENCER

Dr. W. L. Spencer, 81, retired, Supervisor of Instruction in the Division of Secondary Education of Alabama from 1920 to 1949, died in a Montgomery Hospital March 13 following a stroke several weeks prior to the time of his death.

Dr. Spencer was a native of Hammonds Plains, Nova Scotia, Canada, and came to the United States in 1888 with his parents. He was graduated from Williams College with an A.B. degree in 1902, received his A.M. degree from Columbia University in 1915, and a Doctor of Humanities honorary degree was conferred upon him by Birmingham-Southern College in 1934.

He was married to Miss Ruth McConn in 1919 and is survived by his widow and one daughter, Mrs. Herbert Hinds, of Montgomery. Two brothers and five grandchildren also survive him. A son, William D. Spencer, is deceased.

His educational career included teacher of Latin, Greek, and athletics in Drury High School, North Adams, Massachusetts, 1902-03; teacher of Latin and mathematics in Cincinnati, Ohio, Hamilton, New York, and in Lawrenceville, New Jersey, 1903-12; principal of high school in Ashtabula, Ohio, 1912-13; teacher of education, Bowling Green State Normal College, 1916-18; and state high-school inspector in Ohio, 1918-20.

Dr. Spencer came to the Alabama State Department of Education in 1920. After retiring from the Department of Education, he taught at Starke University School and later at Huntingdon College, both in Montgomery. From 1946 to 1952, Dr. Spencer was a member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals and was president of this group in 1950-51. In 1926 he was chairman of the High School Committee of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for the southern states.

He was a member of Phi Beta Kappa, Phi Delta Kappa, Omicron Delta Kappa, Kappa Phi Kappa, Phi Gamma Delta, and Kappa Delta Pi. He was an Elder in the First Presbyterian Church, a 32nd degree Mason, and Rotarian.

Dr. Spencer resided at 3370 Lexington Road, Montgomery, Alabama.

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Proceedings of the
Forty-fourth Annual Convention
of the
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Convention Hall, Portland, Oregon
February 27-March 2, 1960

Theme: Quality Education—Today's Priority

DUE to the large number of participants on the program of the 44th Annual Convention of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, this issue of *THE BULLETIN* contains only a summary of the addresses and papers presented. These proceedings are divided into four parts: Part I, Discussion Groups; Part II, General Sessions; Part III, National Advisory Council Meeting; and Part IV, Business Meeting.

THE National Association of Secondary-School Principals is a department of secondary-school administration of the National Education Association of the United States. It is the professional organization for all who are interested and engaged in the administration of secondary education. It sponsors the *National Honor Society*, the *National Junior Honor Society*, and the *National Association of Student Councils (NASC)*. It conducts research studies in secondary education and has many services for members. The Association publishes *THE BULLETIN* monthly, nine times during the school year (September to May); *STUDENT LIFE* monthly, eight times during the school year (October to May); the *NASSP NEWS LETTER*, a 4-page publication issued four times a year to members of the National Advisory Council and other Association leaders; the *NASSP SPOTLIGHT*, a 4-page publication issued five times a year to NASSP members; and the *NASC HIGHLIGHTS*, a 4-page publication issued four times a year to NASC members. Membership is eight dollars per year, payable to the NASSP, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D. C.

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Part I

Discussion Groups

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING PRACTICES IN TEAM TEACHING?

CHAIRMAN: *Matthew P. Gaffney*, A Study of the American High School, New York, New York

DISCUSSANT: *Robert B. Moore*, School of Education, Stanford University, Stanford, California; Associate Director, Committee on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Summary of the presentation made by M. DELBERT LOBB

DURING the past three years Jefferson County School District R-1 has been conducting an experimental study in the areas of team teaching and schedule modification. The eight high schools in this district have investigated a number of varying designs. In general the conclusions drawn from analyses of objective and subjective data have indicated that teaching teams produce favorable results in the educational development of pupils, that team teaching is economically feasible in secondary schools, and that the opportunities for varied pertinent learning experiences are provided better in situations using team teaching than in regular classes.

The investigation for the school year 1959-60 has extended into a number of interesting and promising areas. Approximately 2,500 students and eighty staff members have participated in some aspect of the project. Almost every curriculum area has been involved in some way at one or more of the schools. In the following paragraphs are described a few of the many promising aspects of team teaching.

At one high school, there is an interdisciplinary team in tenth- and eleventh-grade social studies and English. The team is made up of a teacher specialist in each of the subject areas and one instruction assistant. They have the same large group of students for a double period; the program is integrated beyond mere joint planning and yet each subject retains its identity. This offers the opportunity for much variation of pro-

M. Delbert Lobb is Director of Research, Jefferson County School District R-1, 1580 Yarrow Street, Lakewood 15, Colorado.

cedures and groups. Also, the use of time is more adjustable and efficient than in the regular situation.

At another school, there are teaching teams in Typing I and Typing II. Each of these groups has a teacher specialist and a general teacher and the part-time assistance of a clerk. Classes include about 75 students in a room which has been converted from two regular classrooms by the construction of a vision strip in the intervening wall. This has provided an opportunity for extensive study of this skill and the material and personnel related to teaching it.

There is an intradisciplinary team made up of one teacher specialist, two general teachers, and one instruction assistant. They have set up unclassified English groups for about 270 students in grades 10, 11, and 12. The three grade levels are combined into classes which permit the use of procedures and activities adapted to the needs of the students regardless of their classifications.

In one situation, a teacher specialist, a general teacher, and a clerk are working with classes in World History and American History. This particular group is of special interest because several ninth-grade superior students have been selected for "advanced placement" in the World History class. The plan is to give these students a background in social studies and the skills required for independent research so that in their senior year they can do individual study in depth.

Another pattern having considerable possibilities is a combination of two teams, one in social studies and another in guidance. The social studies group is composed of a teacher specialist, two general teachers, one clerk, two students, and two community consultants. This is a venture into an area and level of cooperation which should yield good results. The guidance team includes two deans and one teacher specialist and serves as a coordinating committee for the guidance functions relating to the tenth-grade students. The teacher specialist is the same person who is on the social studies team. This allows cooperative planning and implementing of time and procedures for group guidance. The daily schedule is set up so that two large World History groups are scheduled for consecutive regular periods with a guidance period between them. The two teams work together in planning efficient use of time to accomplish the objectives of both groups.

There is also a team in English with one teacher specialist, two general teachers, one instruction assistant, a librarian, two students, and two community consultants. This is providing an opportunity for interaction between professionals and other persons in a skill area. This team is assigned to three large groups of over 100 tenth-grade students.

At another school, a teacher specialist and three general teachers are assigned to the World History classes in a modified schedule. This schedule can be changed daily to provide small groups or classes as large as 160

students. In this case the flexibility is accommodated by a special study hall arrangement.

In addition to the designs described, there are groups in mathematics, science, and choral music. The participants in the project are also working in study groups not related specifically to subject areas. These small committees are investigating the following areas of interest: appropriate activities for groups of various sizes and types; utilization of instruction assistants; discovery and use of outstanding techniques; individualization of instruction; techniques of self-evaluation by pupils; conservation and reinvestment of professional time; analysis of plant and facility factors; and the value of pupil and community consultants.

These examples are representative of the wide variety of team teaching practices which are being examined in Jefferson County School District R-1. Findings indicate that they hold great promise for teachers in this school district and are likely to be of interest to other persons concerned with the improvement of secondary schools.

Summary of the presentation made by MATTHEW F. NOALL

THE use of a teaching team in secondary education holds great promise for the improvement of pupil learning. The new form of instruction is a pattern of classroom activity which has evolved from the staff utilization studies, as promoted by the National Commission on the Study of the Utilization of Staff in the Secondary School. In a measure, from these studies, education has found a way to profit from the experiences of industry.

Through automation and division of labor, industry has developed a better utilization of the instruments of production. A great increase has resulted in the units of production per man hour expended. In education, our instruments of production are the teaching personnel, our equipment, and our building facilities. One new tool of production—team teaching—has proportionately increased the rate of pupil learning.

This instrument—the teaching team—may be defined as a combination of two or more teachers who work with variable sized groups of pupils during an adjustable time period which covers two or more regular class sections. The group meets in both extremely large and small sessions. The small group, which is usually formed on the basis of similar individual needs, may vary from a few pupils to the size usually scheduled in the school—say, from twenty-five to thirty pupils. By combining these produc-

Dr. Matthew F. Noall is Executive Secretary of the Utah Central Research Committee of the Secondary-School Principals Association of Utah, 223 State Capitol Building, Salt Lake City, Utah.

tive forces—the teaching team and the variable sized class—a potential is created for greatly increasing the output of pupil learning.

The advantages of team teaching may be described under four headings: (1) an improved utilization of time, competencies, and morale of teachers; (2) an increased opportunity for learning by pupils; (3) a more efficient use of school equipment and mechanical aids for instruction; and (4) an approach to a greater use of space facilities in the buildings.

Through large group instruction, the special competencies of a master teacher can be brought to more pupils in a given time. The time thus saved to the teaching team can be devoted to a mutual preparation period. Such preparation also enables the teachers to develop instructional units that are geared either to group or to individual pupil needs. Through such planning, a teacher who lacks confidence and the desire to function in certain areas may pass that task to others who do not feel so limited.

Teachers who work together in a team may develop a professional rapport which is seldom achieved through individual effort. Furthermore, from the taxpayer's point of view, the talents of a master teacher can be spread more evenly over a student body. This enables each taxpayer to get more nearly the same return on his investment. Under such an arrangement, it is not necessary for certain pupils to be placed permanently in a room with a poor teacher who may, perhaps, be a beginning teacher.

The inexperienced teacher usually may be well utilized in a team. Through what amounts to a learning situation for him, he gains confidence in his own work. Thus, through a kind of professional apprenticeship, as experienced in an actual teaching situation, he can improve his techniques.

This type of organization seems to cultivate greater learning on the part of pupils. For through the efforts of a master teacher, increased insight definitely seems to be the outcome of a large group situation. This statement is supported by the statistics derived from the comparative results between the experimental type work and an average classroom situation.

Equally advantageous to the pupils is the follow-up work from the large group to the small group arrangement. Here the relationship among pupils presents an increased opportunity for the fulfillment of specific pupil needs. Moreover, the follow-up work leads to improved pupil-teacher relationships. In the small groups, the team teachers can work either with retarded or with accelerated pupils, according to the special needs of the pupils under their care. Such opportunities provide the gifted students with an opening to develop an improved depth of experience.

A small group that has been formed on the basis of individual needs may be regrouped whenever the situation appears advisable. Such flexibility has proven a great asset in encouraging pupil initiative and in developing greater pupil responsibility toward one's own individual education.

Mechanical aids to instruction are another favorable instrument of production in team teaching. They consist of overhead, movie, and slide

projectors; maps; flannel boards; and exhibition charts as well as other realia of instruction. With team teaching, all these effects may be used more efficiently since they are gathered into a single location. This procedure furthers an economy of investment by making the equipment serve more pupils at one time, and by reducing wear and tear through keeping these aids stationary instead of having them moved from room to room. As a result of this saving, a school board may be enabled to provide additional aids to instruction.

Large-group instruction requires large seating areas. With certain adjustments in scheduling, space can be made available for large groups, whereas in many school buildings such areas as the auditorium, cafeteria, gymnasium, or music room are ordinarily not being used to their full capacity. But thus through the needs of the large group unit, a more efficient use of space may be achieved.

Parents of students who have participated in team teaching instruction have frequently expressed themselves as feeling enthusiastic over the reactions of their children to this method. Likewise, several recent surveys among pupils have indicated their wholehearted endorsement of the new teaching techniques.

Summary of the presentation made by H. L. SLICHENMYER

TEAM teaching with two, three, or four teachers can permit organization for more efficient and effective instruction and more flexibility of class size. Some activities could be conducted with large classes ranging from 50 to 100 or more students with one teacher in charge while other teachers of the team may be preparing future assignments or demonstrations, or checking tests or other written work. Team teaching tends to improve the quality because the teachers have time to prepare their assignments more thoroughly. Each teacher of the team can conduct the unit for which he is more thoroughly prepared. The large classes with one teacher may readily be used in the introduction of new units and planning, (2) in stimulating interest in a special subject or topic, (3) in the introduction of new terms or problems, (4) in developing appreciation for the subject, (5) in summarizing the unit just completed, (6) in evaluating the instruction, and (7) in the supervision of study. Other activities with large classes which may be conducted better through the use of two or more teachers present in the room are buzz sessions and some forms of drill and problem solving.

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Team teaching provides an opportunity for small group discussion while one teacher is supervising study or is continuing the discussion with a larger group. This makes grouping within a class more flexible and provides for remedial work. Individual instruction can more readily be given through the team approach. Team teaching is a valuable aid in training a new teacher. The new teacher is teamed up with a career teacher and, while the career teacher does most of the large group teaching, the new teacher will have an opportunity to observe the experienced teacher's technique and methods. This is the best type of in-service training that can be provided. Team teaching lends itself well to the use of TV in the classroom.

Team teaching leads to a variation in the number of recitation classes per week for the students. Some students of the class may need more meetings with the teachers than others, and team teaching may provide for this, while those students who can continue on their own may remain with another teacher for supervised study.

Team teaching will bring a different type of school architecture. While the rooms in the typical present day school are all the same size and shape, team teaching calls for some large room along with small rooms for small group discussion, and some still smaller rooms for individual conferences, study, or listening rooms.

Not only will team teaching tend to bring new types of school buildings, but it could also tend to develop more career teachers. Good teachers would be recognized and called upon to supervise the less capable teachers as well as conduct the large group classes. The development of career teachers could lead to more rapid development of the merit salary schedules with greater increased salaries for the better teachers.

Of all the developments which could come from team teaching, most important is the improvement in the quality of teaching through a greater amount of individual instruction given to the students and the enrichment of the program. The team approach allows a teacher greater opportunity to assist the gifted student as well as the less academic student.

Team teaching works especially well in unified studies such as a combination of English and social studies. Some members of the team may be better prepared for one subject than the other and will be able to give better instruction when his major field is being studied.

WHAT IS THE MOST EFFECTIVE WAY OF ORGANIZING THE NUMBER AND LENGTH OF CLASS PERIODS AND THE LENGTH OF THE SCHOOL DAY?

CHAIRMAN: *Shelley S. Boone*, Supervising Principal, Public Schools, Winter Haven, Florida

DISCUSSANTS:

W. Brice Evans, Principal, High School, Estes Park, Colorado

W. W. Owen, Principal, Abraham Lincoln High School, Council Bluffs, Iowa

Summary of the presentation made by **FREDERICK P. ABEL**

THE reader might assume that the writer thinks he knows the answer to this question. He doesn't; he seeks it; and he seeks it with the realization that he starts out with some definite opinions concerning scheduling.

1. For a large majority of the pupils currently enrolled in secondary comprehensive high schools in the United States, the large study hall is a waste of time. Students who could make good use of such study hall time do not have study halls because they fill their programs with extra classes and activities scheduled within the school day. This leaves a rather sizeable number who either do not understand the assignment, do not know how to proceed in completing the assignment, do not recognize the work assigned to them as being important enough for them to proceed with it, do succeed in arranging a schedule where there is a minimum of outside preparation, or just aren't interested enough to make good use of the time.

2. Placing the majority of these pupils in the library for study purposes falls short of the goal of making those pupils students; it restricts the librarian's effectiveness as a librarian because it makes her a study hall supervisor.

3. Teachers vary in their ability to handle effectively a study hall situation, particularly a large one. Teachers who are successful in conducting good study halls might well be used in another capacity which would yield better instructional returns.

4. Appropriate study procedures might vary from one instructional area to another. Effective study habits for English will be developed more if an English teacher assists in the development of those habits. The same applies to the other disciplines—social studies, science, math, foreign language, etc.

Therefore, it would seem to the writer that the length of the class period should be long enough to facilitate the gathering of pertinent information, studying such information and discussing it or reciting it under the supervision of a competent teacher who can direct the process of recognizing

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ing the problem, gathering the information, sorting, interpreting, arriving at conclusions, and testing those conclusions in an orderly, challenging and effective manner. This process suggests a laboratory type approach and it is interesting to note whereas laboratories used to be considered appropriate only for the advanced sciences, such as biology, physics, and chemistry, the laboratory approach is becoming more prominent in other areas—reading, writing, mathematics, and foreign language, to mention but a few. This approach seems to be considered useful in facilitating the scientific approach to problem solving, generally considered by educational psychologists as a more effective way of enhancing the learning process.

Surveys indicate that the 50-to-60-minute class period tends to predominate at least in the middle west and schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. Some schools have adopted a 70-minute period with five periods per day in order to facilitate the laboratory type approach to teaching.

The number of periods per day is determined by the number of activities that are felt appropriate for high-school youth to schedule. Legislated curricular requirements influence the number of required courses, the more common ones being English, the social studies, and physical education. College-bound youngsters in a majority of cases should, in addition, take some mathematics, science, and foreign language. Such a program leaves little time for the enriching areas that are considered valuable for those with talent and who can participate in them. Included here would be the arts (music, practical, *etc.*), publications, drama, speech, and debate. The philosophy of the school concerning the value of these activities will, of course, influence the number of class periods. It follows then that the number of periods and the length of each will determine the length of the school day, as will statutes, or state aid criteria specifying minimum hours per day as is found in Illinois where at least five hours of instruction must be offered each day.

Where so-called extracurricular activities are considered of such value as to be incorporated within the school day, time is provided within the school day. This seems to occur more often where youngsters are transported by school bus to and from school as is the case in the Alexander Ramsey Senior High School of Roseville, Minnesota, situated just north of St. Paul. In that high school, the majority of the activities, including athletics, are scheduled in the middle of the school day. This, of course, limits the length of time for practice of such activities, but, according to the information reaching the writer, this does not seem to have a deleterious effect on the success enjoyed by the activities so scheduled.

In building the best class schedule for his particular school, the principal will want to maximize the effectiveness of the instructional staff. This means that the teachers will be so assigned as to do the most good for the pupils in his or her classes, will have time and energy to prepare effective

learning experiences and evaluate outcomes, and will have readily available the equipment and materials that are needed. It means, too, that non-instructional activities such as clerical and supervisory chores might well be assigned to non-certificated personnel, so that the major time and energy of the teacher will be devoted to the improvement of instruction. Some school systems are experiencing success in employing "lay-readers" for written work (themes, term papers, essays, and notebooks) for corrections of mechanical errors, so that the teacher may save time and pay more attention to style, organization, deepness of thought, and originality.

Electronic machines and other labor-saving scheduling techniques enable schools to achieve greater flexibility in schedule building and more effective pupil assignment to sections. "Frontier-thinkers" recommendations as reported in *Images of the Future*¹ and other publications² on staff utilization will inspire the conscientious administrator to continued efforts in seeking the most effective schedule for the school for which he is responsible.

Summary of the presentation made by D. R. GILL

IT SHOULD be stated at the outset that there is no one most effective way to organize the number and length of class periods or the length of the school day for all schools. Determinant factors include the number of rooms available within a building, room sizes, the number of teachers, the curriculum, whether the school is predominantly urban or rural, and the finances available for operation. Moreover, the characteristics of the community determine to some extent the pattern of a school program. A conservative community, rural in nature, will insist upon a more traditional pattern, while a bedroom suburban community will accept one less traditional.

Certainly the most widely used practices relative to the length of the class period involve either the 45- or 55-minute period. More recently the 70-minute period has been under trial in several schools. A detailed explanation of this program was presented at the meeting last year in Philadelphia and appears in THE BULLETIN of April 1959.

At one time the 45-minute period was common, with agriculture, home-making, shop, and typing classes meeting for two periods. More lately the 55-minute period has become common. This was introduced in many schools with the philosophy (and promise) that the teacher would teach

¹ J. Lloyd Trump, *Images of the Future: A New Approach in the Secondary School*. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, Washington 6, D.C.

² *A Cooperative Study for the Better Utilization of Teacher Competencies*, third report. Mount Pleasant, Michigan: Central Michigan College, June 1957. Mimeographed. 81 pp.

Donald R. Gill is Principal of Hastings High School, Hastings, Michigan.

40 minutes and supervise a study period for 15 minutes. In most instances the study period has been forgotten and teachers are taking the full period for presentation and discussion. The newer 70-minute period is also set up with the idea that the student will do his studying for each class under the direct supervision of the teacher, and, therefore, that study halls are unnecessary. Schools using this plan are most enthusiastic, and many new schools are being built in Michigan with the 70-minute period in mind.

Certainly the most refreshing and challenging suggestions for new educational patterns and procedures have come from J. Lloyd Trump in his *Images of the Future*. The stimulus from this report is far reaching and already schools in many states are beginning to implement their present programs with some of his suggestions. Many schools are experimenting with larger numbers of students in classes. In Michigan, Charlotte High School now teaches a class of over 100 seniors in government and another class of nearly 100 in algebra. Both teachers have clerical assistance. Both are taught by master teachers. The students, parents, and teachers feel that this is working as well if not better than the former scheduling of small groups. Eight senior high schools in Jefferson County, Colorado, are doing some interesting experimental sectioning in biology. Newton High School in Massachusetts has had considerable experience in large-group instruction. And while this is certainly no panacea for all of the problems of effective scheduling, it may be considered one worth more consideration and study.

With the tendency to create more community high schools and the transportation problems arising therefrom, the length of the school day is becoming somewhat governed by the length and terrain of bus routes. Students boarding a bus at 7 A.M. cannot very well be expected to remain in school until after 4 P.M. City schools, on the other hand, are controlled to some extent by business hours, and their days may be somewhat longer. The North Central Association in its new policies has set a school day of six clock hours exclusive of lunch time as the most desirable for its members. This could mean a day from 8 to 12 and 1 to 3, or 9 to 12 and 1 to 4, or variances depending upon the length of the lunch hour. It would seem, however, that a school day of 360 minutes is not too long for high-school students.

As stated earlier, there is obviously no best or most effective way of organizing our schools. But there certainly is need for improvement and experimentation in every phase. We need to exert more positive leadership in terms of orienting our staffs and our communities as to what new is being done and how we might improve our own schools. Dr. Trump's *New Images* is a beginning. Some of us may never work in the school he imagines. Others may well spend the latter part of their careers in such schools. But still to each of us is given this challenge to improve and modify and develop new techniques.

WHAT ARE SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *R. Jerry Cantlon*, Principal, Douglass Junior High School, Boulder, Colorado

DISCUSSANTS:

Lena M. Wolfe, Principal, Swanson Junior High School, Arlington, Virginia

L. Paul Miller, Principal, East View Avenue Junior High School, White Plains, New York

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLOTTE LEHMAN

OVER the years, perhaps no phase of our school operation has received as much criticism as the method of reporting to parents. There is a greater awareness on the part of secondary-school principals of the need for additional methods of reporting to parents, aside from the report card and special letters.

Parent-teacher conferences have been an integral part of the reporting to parents in the elementary school for many years. There appears to be a trend toward incorporating the parent-teacher conference in the junior high school. Many schools are already using the conference method, and other schools are giving it consideration if they can resolve their local situation.

The following speaker will talk about trend toward, and advantages of, the block program. Parent-teacher conferences can be incorporated successfully with the block program. The following paragraphs will elaborate on how this is done in grades seven and eight in our junior high school.

English, social studies, and reading are taught in a two-hour block of time. Each teacher in this area teaches two groups of students and holds one conference with the parents of each student in the two groups. The teacher contacts the parents by telephone to make the appointments. The majority of the conferences are held during the day, but faculty members do return in the evenings to accommodate the parents. All of the conferences are held between December and February. The conference follows the first marking period, thus giving the teacher ample opportunity to study the student in his school environment.

During the conference with the parents, the teacher interprets the latest test results; points out the student's aptitudes and abilities, strengths and weaknesses; and gives an evaluation of the student's work in other

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subjects. Detailed forms evaluating the student's work in other subjects are prepared by his teachers and these, too, are interpreted by the conference teacher. Following the conference, the teacher completes a short conference evaluation form which is placed in the cumulative folder. This report is helpful to the conference teacher the following year as well as to other teachers and counselors who work with the student.

A survey was conducted among all of the conference teachers, and a random sampling was made of two hundred parents. The results of the study indicated that the parent-teacher conferences were successful. It was evident that teachers, parents, and students benefit from this program. The following statements are submitted as recommendations for the parent-teacher conferences:

1. The teacher of the block area has a better understanding of the student's work habits and work skills. This person is in a good position to evaluate the student's abilities, aptitudes, strengths, and weaknesses with the parent. This usually results in a definite improvement in the student's application to school work and behavior.

2. The conferences serve as a screening process. Whenever a special problem is discovered, it is referred to a specialized teacher, particularly a counselor.

3. A desirable relationship and understanding has been achieved through the conference program. As a result, many follow-up calls or contacts have been made, both by the teacher and by the parents on various school problems.

4. Almost every parent visits the school at least once during the year.

5. Our greatest aim in education is to develop each student to his full potential. This development of the individual cannot be achieved without the home and the school working as a team.

6. The parent-teacher conference is an excellent public relations program.

Summary of the presentation made by DONALD V. GROTE

THERE are some exciting new developments in a number of the junior high schools throughout the country. Not all at once but step by step, not in large numbers but in increasing numbers, curricular changes are occurring which make it possible—and necessary—to talk about new developments in the educational program of junior high schools.

The teaching of language arts and social studies in a block of time with this teacher also being the home-room teacher is increasingly becoming more and more the practice. The core or block scheduling permits flexibility, economy of time, functional correlation and integration of subject areas, a home base for each pupil, and the opportunity for one teacher to become well acquainted with a small group of students. These advantages are not as likely possible in a regular departmentalized program. How-

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ever, further exploration is urged in order that the proper emphasis is placed upon subject matter, personnel, student ability, and teaching techniques.

This block of time program now in many schools includes a developmental reading program for all students. The number one medium for learning remains the book. If we are to cope with the vast funds of knowledge available, it is necessary that there be continued attention to reading skills each year.

Grammar is increasingly being taught for what it is—a useful tool; a number of descriptive, not prescriptive, rules about the operation and structure of the English language. It should be taught functionally and realistically in relationship with composition, speech, and social studies. It should be a grammar course of study which begins in seventh grade and which includes only those concepts for each year which most pupils at that level are ready intellectually to grasp and use. By teaching only a few concepts each year, thus making concentration possible, and requiring as much mastery as possible through pre- and mastery tests, many now believe that pupils will learn grammar better than they have. Much of the grammar is being integrated into the social studies units which serve as the vehicle

Now for a word about social studies. There are some of us who are pleased that there is an increasing trend to place major emphasis in either seventh, eighth, or ninth grade on geography. A well-balanced program of social studies, developed by close articulation with elementary grades and with senior high school, is of major importance.

The block of time schedule also provides an opportunity for integration and close correlation of the basic subjects with the allied art subject areas. The social studies and literature units can serve as the vehicle for different art and drama experiences. At times, the language arts-social studies teacher and an art teacher or drama teacher will actually be teaching together in addition to the working, planning, and sharing in preparation for specific teaching areas and related responsibilities.

One of the major new developments is the team teaching approach. Admittedly, team teaching is not entirely new; however, the breaking down of the departmental barriers and the better utilization of staff resulting in improved instruction has yet to be accepted by many. Space does not permit a description of this development. However, through deployment of teachers, regrouping of students, cooperative lesson planning, flexible scheduling, schools have been able to secure greater utilization of staff, better learning conditions, and more efficiency in presentation and content as well as accelerated exchange of professional "know-how" resulting in professional growth and development of staff members.

An increasing number of schools are putting biology or earth science in grade nine instead of general science, and thus making the possibility of chemistry and physics a year earlier, leaving the senior high-

school years for more advanced science or an elective in another field. Anything that will eliminate three consecutive courses of general science, each repeating the other to a startling degree, in grades seven, eight, and nine is a positive improvement. Courses such as geology and astronomy require exploration for inclusion in the junior high-school science curriculum.

The field of mathematics is certainly up for review. There are many commissions presently at work and the only agreement at present is that there must be a change. Through the eighth grade, we have a responsibility, regardless of the youth's academic ability, to explore arithmetic fully, to firm up basic principles, and really to go into content. After these goals have been achieved for the academically talented mathematics students, one semester of algebra in eighth grade is probably desirable.

Foreign language study as part of the junior high school rouses less opposition than it does in the elementary school. With new methods of teaching, the study of at least one foreign language in the seventh and eighth grade has led to increased student interest and proficiency in the foreign languages. Frequently, the study of a foreign language began in the eighth grade, and sometimes, the seventh grade, is continued through the twelfth grade, with the advanced placement now serving as a powerful stimulant.

In the future, we will likely aim for vastly different results in foreign languages. Instead of attracting approximately 15 per cent of the students in our nation's high schools and losing most of them by the wayside, the language courses will aim to attract perhaps 75 per cent and hold a substantial portion of them through a six-year or four-year progressive sequence of learning. The problem of making a foreign language a basic part of the curriculum and requiring all pupils to take it, or making it an elective subject for those who have the interest and the ability to continue in at least a four-year program, is being debated across the country by junior high-school educators. If required in elementary grades, it is assumed that it will be continued in the junior high school, but sometime it must get into the harder phases of grammar and written assignments.

At this more difficult stage, dropouts will become a problem. Can we justify the time in the total school program and the cost of the teachers if less than 50 per cent of the pupils continue with the language through at least a four-year sequence?

WHAT ARE SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN FUNCTIONAL MODERN FOREIGN LANGUAGE TEACHING?

CHAIRMAN: *Bill J. Fullerton*, Chairman, Department of Secondary Education, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona

DISCUSSANTS:

Herbert H. Helble, Principal, High School, Appleton, Wisconsin

W. B. Thompson, Principal, High School, Greenville, Mississippi

Summary of the presentation made by ELTON HOCKING

PROBABLY the most significant new development in this field is the general agreement that the two-year course is much too short. It has now been agreed by your Association, the Modern Language Association, James B. Conant, and the NDEA, that four years of one language should be the minimum; that six years, beginning in grade seven, should be the norm; and, to most of these, that the long sequence from third grade into college is most desirable.

You have made it clear that any of these sequences must be functional; that is, the students must practise speaking the language and not simply "brood over the printed page." To help accomplish this, various new electronic devices are being purchased, usually with matching funds from the NDEA, to bring excellent spoken models into the classroom. Every modern language teacher needs these devices, for the new methods would make a human talking machine of her, and she would soon be exhausted. The tape recorder is a much better talking machine, and makes possible what is called the language laboratory. (For details see *Purchase Guide* of the CCSSO, Ginn and Co., 1959; also the September 1959 issue of *A-V Instruction*; for printed matter, *Materials List* of the MLA.)

The language lab can help the teacher by providing a tireless voice to be imitated simultaneously by the whole class, isolation for each student so that he feels no self-consciousness, replay (if he has a recorder in his booth) which enables him to compare his performance with the recorded voice and to criticize and improve himself.

Recording and replay requires an instrument for each student. At \$6,000 for 25 instruments, this would double the cost. I suggest that this feature be postponed, but the wiring for it should be installed when the booths are first set up. Such a laboratory could be built for approximately \$6,000. It would give each student privacy for his listening and oral practice. It would include a complete console for the teacher, enabling

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her to listen to any student, correct him, and hold a private conversation with him without disturbing anyone else. The installation would include high-quality microphones and earphones for each student and acoustical treatment for the room, two recorders, a fair supply of magnetic tapes, and storage cabinet as a part of the console. Exact cost would depend on cost of booths and hourly labor charges.

It is important to arrange the booths so that there are clear sight lines to a projection screen at the front of the room. Excellent films and filmstrips will soon become available, with related foreign language materials. The audio-visual course will bring the foreign country into our schools, provide a new social experience, and also enable the student to see what he is talking about. This in turn will obviate the need of translation.

Educational television provides a similar audio-visual experience. Current experiments in Boston, Hackensack, and elsewhere are teaching foreign languages to lower grade children in thousands of classrooms. The "airborne TV project," based at Purdue University, plans to include foreign languages among its many offerings. All these projects are intended as aids to the classroom teacher, who cannot otherwise have the resources of a great studio and faculty.

Various teaching machines are being developed for individual use by students of foreign languages and other subjects. All these devices share a common purpose—to take language learning out of the realm of grammar translation and to make it truly functional.

Summary of the presentation made by GRANT W. JENSEN

HERALDED as a new approach to the teaching of foreign languages is the aural-oral approach. While the techniques are not new, analyses of this method reveal the simplicity of attacking the components of learning involved in teaching-learning of a new language. Hearing the language and repeating the phrases give the learner a feeling and comprehension that is identical with the method by which he learned his native tongue. Reading skills are always learned by youngsters after basic oral-aural skills have been mastered. This principle is now applied to the teaching of a foreign language.

The secondary-school administrator must know many related phases of this instructional problem. Among these ideas are who shall learn a language and when shall they learn it? Secondary schools should encourage students to enter a program in their freshman year. Where students have learned some language in the elementary-school grades, the administrator must provide leadership in articulating the programs. It is suggested that students who have ability and some future use for languages be permitted

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to enter these programs. In a comprehensive high school, this will be limited to approximately half of the student population.

What languages should be taught and for how many years? is another question. Most of our energy must be placed on modern languages. This is again emphasized by the National Defense Education Act and the encouragement given therein. Administrators should encourage the mastery of a language, which means offering at least three years and, if possible, four years of instruction.

Teachers must be selected who have a command of spoken words, as well as reading skill. Fortunately colleges and universities are offering more of this type of training in their language departments. In addition, the opening of foreign campuses and the arrangements made for students to live with families in foreign lands are opening new vistas of learning for prospective language teachers. Foreign language teachers currently on school faculties must become acquainted with recent developments. In-service education programs developed in conjunction with universities, state departments of education, and associations of foreign language teachers are means to this end. The administrator should accumulate materials resulting from research programs in the teaching of languages and keep his staff informed.

Encouragement can be provided by furnishing materials needed for instruction. For example, the teacher of Russian sorely needs a typewriter with Russian characters. This permits the saving of time and energy otherwise expended when the characters must be handwritten. The tape recorder is another device that can be utilized where language laboratories are not available. The number and variety of foreign language laboratories are multiplying rapidly, impetus being supplied by matching Federal funds supplied through the National Defense Education Act. At this time it is difficult to say which is the best type of installation. Schools must begin reporting results of their experiences. (At this point two short master tapes prepared by a teacher demonstrating a laboratory teaching method were played.)

Finally, the administrator must work with the teacher in solving instructional problems arising from the use of foreign language laboratories. Many of the master tapes take several hours to prepare. Teaching becomes more exacting and teachers must produce more concentrated work in certain phases of the presentation. It is recommended that attention be given to furnishing part-time laboratory assistants. It is mandatory that teachers master techniques of laboratory operations. There is nothing magical in methods and materials of teaching. They merely become truly working tools in the hands of master teachers.

WHAT IS THE ROLE OF THE PRINCIPAL IN PROMOTING GOOD RELATIONSHIPS WITH AND AMONG THE STAFF?

CHAIRMAN: *Robert Lloyd*, Vice Principal, White Pine High School, Ely, Nevada

DISCUSSANTS:

Harold Mescher, Principal, High School, Cairo, Illinois

George L. Reiss, Principal, Wall Township High School, Belmar, New Jersey

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE E. MILLER

PROMOTING good staff relations in schools was rather unheard of in early school administration. The relationship of staff to administration was usually one of independence. There was direction, but it was authoritarian and very dogmatic. Douglass in his book *Organization and Administration of Secondary Schools* presents six points why Democratic Administration is the key to good principal-staff relations:

1. It is the teacher's right
2. It makes for better relationships
3. It stimulates teacher growth
4. It results in better administration and teaching
5. It relieves, to some extent, overburdened administrators
6. It teaches democratic living to teacher, pupil, and administrator

In today's high school, the principal must work with his staff more than ever to accomplish the aims of modern education. No school can ever function or accomplish quality education when the planning is a one-way street with only the principal as the sole director. It is a fact that, when the staff has a voice in the planning of the school program, much more interest and cooperation will be given and the end result will be that all the staff will do a much better job. Many principals make a huge mistake when certain duties are delegated to members of their staff and then continue to look over their shoulders to see if the task is being done. When this happens, the staff takes little or just token interest in the assigned area.

Far too many principals criticize teachers in the presence of others and many times forget the human element involved. When we find problems with teachers, a private conference is the only way to solve the issue. Some administrators still take the route that, when some problem arises with a few people, they call a meeting of the entire staff and talk in general terms leaving all teachers with the question in their minds, "Does he mean me?"

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The once popular song "The Little Things Mean a Lot" is so true in principal-staff relations. Principals should always create enough personal charm so that their staffs will never hesitate to discuss problems with them. I have found that, when the administrator can grant some small personal requests to his staff, better teaching results. More important, if the principal will exercise tact, sympathy, friendliness, and fairness, he is well on the way to having a good working relationship with his staff.

To point out what has been said, I refer to a number of surveys on what teachers say about principal-staff relationships. Teachers have said over and over again that the three things which are of the most importance are: (1) Confidence in the principal in respect to his leadership; (2) Cooperation among all the staff members; and (3) *Esprit de corps* and friendly atmosphere between teachers and administrator. The role of the principal in promoting good relationships with and among the staff becomes one key to the success of quality education in our schools.

Summary of the presentation made by LESTER W. ANDERSON

WHERE favorable working relationships exist, teacher morale will be improved. When teacher morale is high, students will also make greater achievement.¹ In light of this fact, it is important that attention be given to characteristics or factors which are related to high teacher morale. The following factors are presented, therefore, as guides to principals interested in developing good working relationships with their faculties.

The high-school principal determines, to a great extent, the "climate" of operation within his school. Teachers are quick to sense the moods, values, and desires of the administrator. It can also be assumed that teachers are generally anxious to meet the expectations of the principal. Herein lies the key to the role of the principal in developing good relationships with his faculty.

If the principal demonstrates by his own behavior that he is willing to work cooperatively with others and that he thinks it is important for teachers to do the same, it is likely that teachers will respond in a manner compatible with the expectations of the principal. There must be a genuine desire on the part of the principal to behave in a cooperative manner, however, for it is very easy for teachers to detect any inconsistency in what the principal suggests and the way in which he behaves. One might think of it in terms of the slogan, "What you *are* speaks so loudly, I can hardly hear a word you say!"

¹ Lester W. Anderson, "Teacher Morale and Student Achievement," *Journal of Educational Research*, May 1953, p. 693-8.

Lester W. Anderson is Associate Professor of Education in the School of Education, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan.

Teachers must also have confidence in the ability of the principal to understand and assist them with instructional problems. A principal who is well informed concerning curriculum matters and who is a master teacher himself will be more highly regarded than one of less ability.

Ability to perform skillfully is not adequate alone. It is also important that the principal demonstrates a continuing interest in classroom activities of his teachers. Observations made by the principal relating to a particular project or class activity personalizes the concern of the principal for the instructional activities of his teachers.

It would be still better if the principal would be well enough acquainted with the teachers and their activities so that he might inquire on some of the more significant outcomes, individual student progress, or their future plans. Teachers will soon recognize sincere interest in their teaching, and they will then be more willing to discuss school matters.

Principals must also cultivate a positive approach with teachers. Some years ago, there was a popular song with the theme, "Accentuate the Positive—Eliminate the Negative." This could well be the slogan for administrators to follow. Research studies have demonstrated that greater motivation results from praise for a job well done rather than from punishment or criticism of one's failures and weaknesses. If every teacher is made to feel important because of praise for a job well done, good rapport is quite likely to be forthcoming. At least, the principal who practices this approach is likely to have better relationships with his teachers than is the principal who is constantly criticizing the faculty for not getting the job done effectively.

Teachers need opportunities to become identified with other teachers in working towards common goals. It is the responsibility of the principal to make such opportunities readily available. One of the most widely used techniques in working with the total faculty is through a regular "faculty meeting." These meetings can be very effective if they center on teacher problems rather than the principal and his problems. Faculty meetings which are organized around instructional problems give teachers an opportunity to identify themselves with the rest of the faculty in the solution to common goals.

It is also important for high teacher morale so that teachers have confidence in their fellow teachers. Most everyone wants to be proud of his school. It is generally recognized that the quality of the faculty determines, to a great extent, the quality of the school. Teachers may not always have the most modern building and facilities, but they may still have great pride in the school if they think there is a good faculty.

Planning instruction around a common instructional theme, such as "Democratic Heritage" is sometimes used effectively to unite all teachers on a common objective. Use of faculty committees to solve special problems gives teachers an opportunity to work together. There is no substi-

tute for face-to-face working relations of the staff in providing opportunities to understand each other and to develop a feeling that each member is making a contribution to the goals of the entire group.

Another basic principle in establishing good relationships is that the intellectual ability of everyone is utilized appropriately. People with ability and talent want to use them constructively. The high-school principal should be observant of any unusual talents present in his staff. It may be that an individual's talent is limited, but most everyone has some special talent which can be utilized.

For reasons quite irrelevant, teachers are sometimes assigned to supervise certain extra-curricular activities even though the teacher may have little ability or experience along these lines. It is very probable that such an assignment under these conditions will result in failure or a mediocre performance by the teacher. It is extremely doubtful that such an experience will contribute much to the teacher's mental health or to the personal relationships between that teacher and the principal.

A final concern is the social relationships of the principal with the faculty outside of school. It is difficult to establish recommendations in this area and, yet, it can be a significant element in developing desirable relationships between the principal and the faculty. It is a fairly safe assumption that practically all teachers would enjoy an invitation to the home of the principal. Both the principal and his wife might also find this to be a very rewarding event. Open-house affairs when a faculty is large is used frequently. Smaller faculties might rather be entertained at dinner, a bridge party, or some other type of small group affair. It is not necessary for the principal and his wife to be "social butterflies," but it is desirable that they be socially minded.

No doubt there are many additional factors or practices which could be identified which are equally important to the development of good relationships with and between the staff. This brief summary of selected factors is not intended to be an all-inclusive review. Rather, an attempt was made at presenting a few ideas which might be useful in this important role of the high-school principal. There is considerable opinion to support the idea that the success of a principal in establishing proper relationships with his faculty might very well be the crucial element in the success of his school. All principals are urged to give this problem their careful consideration.

WHAT AND HOW MUCH HELP CAN SCHOOLS DERIVE FROM PROVISIONS OF THE NATIONAL DEFENSE EDUCATION ACT?

CHAIRMAN: *Joel T. Kelley*, Assistant State High School Supervisor, State Department of Education, Columbia, South Carolina

DISCUSSANTS:

William L. Erickson, Coordinator of National Defense Education Act and Director of Instructional Services, State Department of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana

Thomas C. Green, Regional Consultant, State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa

PANEL:

George L. Cleland, Director, Division of Instructional Services, State Department of Public Instruction, Topeka, Kansas

J. Graham Sullivan, Chief, Bureau of National Defense Education Act Administration, State Department of Education, Sacramento, California

R. R. Vance, Director of Instructional Administration, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee

Summary of the presentation made by **GEORGE L. CLELAND**

TWO of the most crucial problems in education in virtually all states are adequate finance and qualified teachers. Certainly the quality of the instructional program is primarily dependent upon these two factors. The impact of the National Defense Education Act in relation to these problems has been quite significant in Kansas for two reasons.

First, Kansas has attempted to finance its educational program primarily through a property tax at the local level. State support is considerably below the national average. The problem is particularly acute in the cities where enrollments have skyrocketed and the property tax has become almost confiscatory. Federal money which schools have received, therefore, have enabled them to provide badly needed instructional equipment and materials.

Second, Kansas is a state of small schools. Of the 623 high schools nearly 400 of them have enrollments of 100 or less. Many teachers, therefore, must teach in fields where their preparation is at a minimum. In the upgrading of teacher competencies, the National Defense Education Act has had considerable effect. This has been manifested through institutes at colleges and universities, and through an expanded supervisory staff within the State Department of Education. With funds received, the State Department has been able to add seven highly qualified persons in

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science, mathematics, foreign language, and guidance. These persons have conducted a series of conferences and workshops throughout the state.

We are just now in the process of evaluating the effectiveness of the NDEA. Quantitatively this is relatively easy. We know, for example, that 870 projects have been approved totalling over a million and a half dollars. We know the nature and the type of these projects. However, the acquisition of additional equipment and materials does not automatically guarantee an improved instructional program. We are more concerned with the extent to which existing courses and methods of instruction are being revised in accordance with new developments. We believe we have some tangible evidence in this respect. An example of this is in modern foreign language. During this year, 71 secondary schools requested electronic equipment costing approximately \$250,000. Requests ranged from a single tape recorder to complete language laboratories. In order to provide effective use of this equipment with the emphasis upon the oral-aural approach, a series of workshops have been organized. One of these now in operation has 50 language teachers meeting together each Saturday morning for six weeks.

Another area in which the NDEA has had a pronounced effect has been in guidance. Federal money has been used as an incentive for schools to improve the quality of their guidance programs. Schools are paid in proportion to the qualifications of the counselor and the amount of time which he devotes to guidance. A school may qualify for \$1500 per counselor provided the counselor is fully qualified and is giving full time to guidance activities. With the increased emphasis on guidance at the state level, plus the stimulation of financial support, we believe that within two years all secondary schools will have well-trained guidance persons.

Finally, although the National Defense Education Act is specifically concerned with science, mathematics, and modern foreign language, we have found that it is having a stimulating effect on other subject areas. An increasing number of schools are studying their entire educational programs and are working to improve them.

Summary of the presentation made by J. GRAHAM SULLIVAN

THE best way to answer the question referred to in the topic assigned to this panel is to report on what and how much help NDEA has been to California to date.

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First, we have interpreted the program as outlined in the Act itself as an incentive program, not basic support for public education or a blank check. The first criterion which must be met by local school districts participating under the provisions of the Act is evidence that their proposal for participation is above and beyond normal effort. We recognize that it is often difficult to identify "above and beyond normal effort," but we do believe in California that we have devised, through our policies and procedures, a means of encouraging districts to use this approach.

We have accepted the statement of Commissioner Derthick that the Act, although made up of many Titles, each with its own specific purpose, was drafted for the single general purpose of encouraging state departments of education, local school districts, and institutions of higher education to seek ways of improving the quality of instruction, and that each Title, therefore, is dependent upon every other Title within the framework of the Act.

In brief, we have said that we are to use the Federal funds, and state and local matching funds in California to extend our testing program in order to identify our talent at all levels, through better counseling and guidance to direct that talent through improved instructional programs including improved course objectives, content, materials, and teaching—all followed by careful evaluation.

In Title III we have placed emphasis on program appraisal and development as the first step in making a request for equipment under the provisions of III-A. No project has been approved for purchase of equipment and materials until we have evidence that a school district has taken an over-all look at their present curriculum offering; identified needs, weaknesses, and new areas; and then identified equipment needed to fill the gaps.

Emphasis in our state supervision program, Title III, has been in four directions: *first*, assisting school districts in local program appraisal and local program development; *second*, setting up state-wide and regional workshops and in-service education programs for teachers, supervisors, and administrators; *third*, evaluating local projects in terms of stated objectives contained within the project; and, *fourth*, disseminating throughout the state information of promising practices which are being uncovered in local district project activities. The NDEA funds have made it possible for us to make available many recognized leaders throughout the country for workshops, in-service training programs, and other aspects of supervision.

We have had one major concern with reference to Title III. I refer to the complete absence of funds to finance local district improvement programs except for equipment and materials. We are hopeful that the U. S. Office of Education and Congress will respond favorably to our plea and that of others to amend the Act to allow for financial aid to other aspects of instruction at the local level, not just equipment and materials.

Under the provisions of Title V-A, we have spent only limited funds for expansion of our testing program, for we found in a survey taken about a year ago that all of our school districts were meeting the minimum requirements for testing programs set forth in our State Plan. Our emphasis has been on strengthening counseling and guidance, for we do feel that we presently have, through our existing testing program, cumulative records, and other devices, more information about students than we are presently using effectively.

Title VIII participation in California has been largely at the junior college level, although not entirely. The major purposes under provisions of this Title have been to develop new frontiers in technical education, not to use the funds made available to support traditional training activities. The major part of the first allocations made in our state were used for studies and development of programs, both at the local level and at the state level. Two major areas of program development have been in the field of electronics—one, the electronic technician, and two, the data processing technician.

Title X is providing to us an opportunity to undertake research and analysis in some areas of critical need that we have been aware of for some time. The specific areas of study are: evaluation of existing statistical services, improvement of existing report forms, and modifying statistical services; development of accounting and reporting manuals; educational facilities inventory; reporting of non-certificated school employees; pupil age-in-grade and school progress information.

In addition to the four Titles referred to above for which the State Department of Education has the sole responsibility and for which it has prepared State Plans, it has limited responsibility for other program Titles, particularly as they involve the participation of California's thirteen state colleges. These responsibilities include the processing of all contracts, coordination of the total program in the state, and dissemination of information about NDEA throughout the state.

The demand for student loans under Title II has far exceeded our expectation. To illustrate, the thirteen state colleges alone have made loans up to one million dollars to date. The one-ninth matching for this has been provided by our State Legislature.

California has had two guidance institutes under Title V-B, two language institutes under Title VI, and several programs are under way under Title VII.

In summary, we believe that NDEA has been of tremendous help to California, that it has encouraged local school districts to move out and appraise their present program and improve the quality of instruction, to raise their equipment standards, to find more effective teaching materials, to up-grade the service of their teaching staff, and to articulate more carefully the programs of instruction at all levels. NDEA has enabled the State Department of Education to offer new and important services to

local school districts. Institutions of higher education have been encouraged to examine carefully their present teacher preparation programs and make modifications where warranted. Many college students, prospective and present, have, through the student loan fund, been permitted to continue their education which, without this financial assistance, may have terminated at the end of high school.

A report on NDEA in California would not be complete without a word of appreciation and commendation to the U. S. Commissioner and his staff for their leadership, considered judgment, and recognition of the need for flexibility of administration in terms of individual state needs and problems.

Summary of the presentation made by R. R. VANCE

ALTHOUGH the administrative problem of approving local projects has occupied much of our attention up to the present time and although satisfactory procedures for evaluating results have not yet been perfected, it may be a little early in the game to say with any degree of definiteness what and how much help Tennessee schools can derive from the provisions of the National Defense Education Act. Nevertheless, in spite of these facts, I can point to some rather specific trends in the improvement of our school program, trends which are a direct result of the provisions of the Act. In designating these trends, I shall deal with the titles with which I have been most intimately involved, *viz.*, Title III and Title V.

TITLE III

As a consequence of the operation of the Tennessee Plan for Strengthening Instruction in Science, Mathematics, and Modern Foreign Languages, and as a consequence of the operation of local school system plans developed up to this point in accordance with the provisions contained within the State Plan, there is current evidence to the effect that the following objectives are being realized:

1. A recognition on the part of school administrators and supervisors of a serious deficiency in instruction in the areas of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages. These deficiencies are, in large part, a result of the following conditions: (a) a scarcity of trained teachers in these areas, particularly on the secondary-school level; and (b) too few of our secondary-school students with the required academic aptitude electing courses in these three areas. At this juncture, I should say that, although there is a widespread recognition of this deficiency in instruction in the three areas in question, our local administrative and supervisory officials are guarding against a weakening

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or cheapening of instruction in other instructional areas, notably (a) the arts (music and art); (b) health education; (c) English grammar and composition, and English and American literature; (d) the social studies; and (e) vocational education including agriculture; distributive education; home economics; and vocational-trade, industrial, and technical training. In other words, we feel the necessity for maintaining a balanced course of study with every area receiving proper emphasis but with science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages receiving considerably more emphasis than heretofore.

2. The competencies of classroom teachers to teach science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages in grades one through 12 are being upgraded.

3. Classroom teachers and local supervisors of instruction are more effectively selecting and using appropriate equipment and materials as an aid to strengthening instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages.

4. Specialized supervisory personnel are making increased contributions to the improvement of classroom instruction in these three areas.

5. There has been a more determined and concentrated effort to coordinate programs for the improvement of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages with other aspects of the total school program.

6. Existing and related services are being utilized to bring about the maximum growth and development of students.

To realize the above objectives, our state and local supervisory staffs have been assigned a tremendously heavy and important role. To be specific, supervisors are now discharging these responsibilities:

1. They provide leadership and professional assistance in the identification of needs in the areas of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages; in the planning of programs to meet these needs; in the initiation of local projects as integral parts of programs; in the implementation of plans; in the evaluation of progress and the resultant programs; and in the interchange of ideas and experiences.

2. They help teachers to select the equipment, materials, and techniques which are related to newer concepts in the fields of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages.

3. They hold conferences with teachers, conduct demonstrations, visit schools and school systems with superior programs, and prepare printed materials to assist teachers in doing a more effective instructional job.

As further evidence that Title III of the National Defense Education Act is helping schools in Tennessee, I shall cite the following facts:

1. Of 153 public-school systems in Tennessee, 141 have submitted science applications, 102 of which have been approved; 45 have submitted mathematics applications, 35 of which have been approved; and 31 have submitted modern foreign language applications, 25 of which have been approved. Of course, the above figures constantly change. They are accurate only as of the date this report was prepared, *viz.*, January 11.

2. Never before in the recent history of public education in the state has so much money been appropriated for equipment, materials, *etc.*, in the fields of science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages.

3. Members of local boards of education have become increasingly aware of the need for strengthening instruction in science, mathematics, and modern

foreign languages. They are striving to meet this need by informing the people and enlisting their cooperation.

4. During the past summer, 5 science and mathematics institutes were held in the state. Thus far the University of Tennessee at Knoxville has conducted the only modern foreign language institute in the state. However, Vanderbilt University at Nashville has submitted an application to conduct a modern foreign language institute.

5. Title III has definitely challenged our people to do more serious thinking concerning what is offered in our schools and the effectiveness of instruction in what is offered.

TITLE V

Just as the provisions of Title III have been instrumental in initiating improvement trends in the strengthening of instruction in science, mathematics, and modern foreign languages, so have the provisions of Title V (guidance, counseling, and testing) been instrumental in initiating improvement trends in this area. The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has already done a great deal of spade work in preparing our secondary schools for this program. In the first place, the application of the guidance services criteria of the Evaluative Criteria of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-School Standards (now the National Study of Secondary-School Evaluation) has caused many secondary schools to view with some alarm their rather low evaluations in guidance, and to strive to strengthen these programs. In the second place, the Southern Association, at its annual meeting at Louisville, Kentucky, last December, approved a proposed revision of the Standards of the Commission on Secondary Schools, said proposed revision to read as follows:

The school shall provide services which will assist pupils in making intelligent occupational choices, selecting appropriate educational activities, evaluating progress, and determining sound courses of action. Every member school must have at least one member of the staff who has a minimum of 12 semester hours of graduate study in counseling and guidance. Schools enrolling as many as 500 pupils must provide the services of the equivalent of one full-time professionally trained counselor.

This proposed revision of standards now lies on the table; but, upon a favorable vote by the membership of the Southern Association at its next annual meeting in December 1960, it will be removed from the table and will become effective immediately thereafter.

Under the impact of these already existent emphases upon the significance of strong guidance and testing programs in Southern Association secondary schools, it has been relatively easy for Tennessee to formulate a plan, the essential objectives of which are as follows:

1. The expansion of the following activities currently carried on by the Area of Pupil Testing and Guidance of the Tennessee State Department of Education:

- a. The planning of guidance programs at the state level
 - b. The provision of leadership in assisting local schools in the initiation and development of guidance and testing programs
 - c. The preparation of guidance and testing materials
 - d. The provision of a suggested state basic testing program for the optional use of the public schools, with partial financial coverage by state appropriation
 - e. The provision of consultative services to public schools
 - f. The evaluation of the guidance program at the state level and the provision of professional assistance to local school systems in the evaluation of their guidance and testing programs
 - g. The establishment of regulatory functions and the granting of over-all direction and coordination to the total state program of pupil guidance and testing
2. The granting of assistance to local secondary schools in the establishment, maintenance, and extension of certain essential guidance features in their programs
 3. The granting of assistance to local secondary schools in the attainment of specific long-range goals
 4. Provision for guidance conferences and workshops sponsored by the state educational agency, which is the Tennessee State Board of Education
 5. Provisions for the carrying on of reviews and research activities which are considered necessary to the attainment of the objectives of the program and to the determination and the planning of improvements

Although in this article I have dealt principally with Title III and Title V of the National Defense Education Act, the general impact of the entire Act upon education in Tennessee may be summarized in the following statements:

1. A prominent schoolman in our state said a few weeks ago: "If the National Defense Education Act and all its accompanying financial benefits to the schools should be withdrawn right now in the early stages of operation, it will have already done incalculable good and the people, by and large, will continue preparations to participate actively in many phases of the already established and functioning programs."
2. The superintendent of schools of one of our largest county systems said a few months ago: "If Russia's Sputniks and Lutnik did nothing else but frighten us out of our lethargy and make us alarmingly aware of our technological lag in education, then the fright will have been eminently worth while and will spur us on to a more critical examination of the programs of our public schools—an examination which will surely lead to prompt and decisive action in strengthening every phase of public education."

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS STAFF IMPROVE THE INTELLECTUAL CLIMATE OF A SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Vern Newman*, Principal, Green River High School, Green River, Wyoming

DISCUSSANTS:

Rufus A. Brackley, Principal, High School, East Greenwich, Rhode Island

William Medley, Principal, High School, Winfield, Kansas

PANEL:

Charles A. Bowes, Principal, Senior High School, Newington, Connecticut

John D. Mees, Principal, Laboratory School, Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, Illinois

Bob G. Woods, Professor of Secondary Education, Southern Methodist University, Dallas, Texas

Lawrence E. Vredevoe, Professor of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, California

Summary of the presentation made by EDSON M. BAILEY

Read by Charles A. Bowes

A SCHOOL with a real intellectual climate is one in which learning is the primary business of the day. This does not mean that all other acceptable activities designed to meet all the objectives of secondary education are lacking. It does mean that these other activities are a real and vital part of the learning process.

Certain conditions must be present before a school can provide an intellectual climate. *First*, and perhaps most important of all, the community which the school serves must desire such a climate, and this desire must be a basic part of the policy of the board of education. This desire for an intellectual climate in the high school must also permeate down into the junior high- and elementary-school programs. Unless pupils come to high school with an aroused intellectual curiosity, it is difficult indeed to provide them with it since old habits must be stifled before new ones can be formed. So, too, must they come to the high school with a real willingness to work—a doing, seeking attitude that goes beyond mere lesson mastery.

Secondly, a school with a real intellectual climate must provide an environment in plant and equipment which not only promotes but also sustains and develops intellectual curiosity. It must provide well-equipped classrooms which reflect the area of the lessons taught in them, labora-

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tories which enable pupils to probe and search and go beyond rote experiments, and libraries with sufficient breadth and depth of material to stimulate pupils to real research.

Aside from community support and physical environment, a school with real intellectual climate will provide health services, both mental and physical, and competent guidance which enables the pupil to plan his life objectives in light of his full potential. Since we are mostly concerned with a comprehensive school, the school must provide a variety of offerings which meet the needs and interests of a wide range of abilities. It is not only the superior pupils of a school who need an intellectual climate in which to work toward the achievement of their objectives. All pupils, from the very slow in their own special programs to the very superior in advanced-placement or college-level programs, need this kind of environment in varying degrees.

And *finally*, a school with a real intellectual climate will provide rewards, both tangible and intangible, which bring satisfaction and a sense of real achievement to learning. Some of our failure in the past to create a real intellectual climate throughout our schools has been an assumption that only in certain subjects is such a climate possible, or even necessary. We have been content, in some areas, with the mastery of skills, neglecting the opportunities which most skill subjects offer to promote intellectual curiosity. We have, too often, failed to insist on the niceties of good usage and correct conduct in many situations, commonplaces, which by their very nature are basic elements in an intellectual climate.

The role of the principal and the staff in such a school seems well defined. The principal must provide the leadership in the community as in the school. This leadership will take many directions—in plant planning, in curriculum studies, and in the organization and administration of the daily life of the school. He must be alert to keep his board of education informed of the present and future needs of the school. He is responsible for the creation of working conditions which afford teachers the opportunity to perform their work effectively. He must recognize the contributions of the past and be able to face the future with courage and imagination. He must be able to meet the demands of the present with equanimity and chart his course safely through the many pressures which besiege him. Perhaps his most important task is to seek and find teachers who can implement such a program, for eventually the full burden of providing an intellectual climate will rest on them.

Finding good teachers, teachers with adequate academic backgrounds, teachers with proper training in all the skills and techniques of classroom management, teachers with intellectual curiosity, for without it they cannot produce it in others, teachers who make teaching their primary purpose—finding such teachers is something more than an academic problem. Recent teacher shortages created by the rapid expansion of our classrooms have provided opportunities for the placement of marginal

personnel. To fill the demand for teachers, training institutions have in many cases been forced to lower the criteria for admission and to weaken standards for achievement. Better working conditions, better salaries, and a more secure tenure have been factors in attracting some whose objectives have not all been of an intellectual nature.

If a school is to have an intellectual climate, such a climate must prevail in the classroom and the teacher must provide it. His own example in demonstrating intellectual curiosity and observing correct procedures in usage and conduct will set the pace for his pupils. The work of the classroom must be of the probing, seeking sort. There must be no confusion between high qualitative standards and mere busy work. The teacher must be thoroughly trained in the use of all teaching techniques—modern, even experimental, as well as those which have stood the test of time. Pupil rewards must be both tangible and intangible—tangible in the sense that they can be easily identified and recognized by others and intangible in the sense that they are self-satisfying with promise of later enhancement.

Little, if anything new, has been offered in these remarks. Good schools have always provided an intellectual climate in which pupils might learn. Good schools will always do so, provided they have the support of the community and the services of dedicated administrators and teachers.

Summary of the presentation made by LEROY J. KNOEPPPEL

Read by John D. Mees

THE PRINCIPAL is constantly trying to improve the intellectual quality of his school; and perhaps in assuming this leadership, he often-times omits many items that would contribute to the intellectual growth of students because of his assumption that this development is already consistently taking place. An administrator may profitably evaluate his program by devising a check list of items that he knows will contribute to intellectual development within his own school and his community. By starting with the physical facilities, a principal can make a definite contribution by seeing to it that a building is kept in good condition and attractively decorated. In addition, he may encourage frequent displays of materials in conspicuous and desirable locations and the arrangement of artwork and student projects of all areas by departments so that students may easily visit, observe, and discuss these displays. He should also be alert to take advantage of traveling art exhibits, book exhibits, and historical materials available to secondary schools.

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A principal may well stimulate an atmosphere of cooperative working conditions between the faculty and the non-certificated staff of the school. He may improve the intellectual climate by bringing inspirational speakers to faculty groups as well as to student groups. Also the encouragement of the faculty to attend seminars and workshops and to take extension courses in summer school leads to deeper insights and a broader cultural outlook.

A principal should create in all staff members, a sense of respect for his position, and they likewise should create this sense of genuine respect in the minds of students toward teachers and teaching. One way of creating that respect is by appearing well groomed; acting in a mature, poised way at all times; and always setting an example of good manners.

A principal should impress upon his faculty that each student must be educated. A teacher should not embarrass the student before others of his age because of that student's improper preparation or lack of knowledge; rather he should continue to improve instruction and the atmosphere for learning, encouraging students to seek knowledge, and recognize and praise an excellent piece of work.

Another great possibility toward improving an intellectual climate in the secondary schools is to cooperate with the elementary schools to see that a good reading comprehension program instills in students the ability and desire to read when they reach the secondary school. The principal and his staff also can do a great deal by providing a good atmosphere of supervision so that students' minds and actions are guided into good conduct, good discipline, and serious thought while they attend the secondary school; by being sure that teachers are available for counseling when a student needs this aid and that they are willing to give whatever time the student needs to develop a sense of respect, of appreciation, and of willingness to use his talents to the utmost. Certainly teachers will keep in mind at all times that praise for good work is the greatest stimulant for improvement in work.

In developing this over-all pattern of a school, a staff must be informed as to the philosophy and the ultimate goals of the school. Teachers, in turn, must work as a unit to provide the academic standards, the co-curricular objectives, and the enrichment opportunities in order to increase this intellectual atmosphere.

A closeness by principal, counselors, deans, or other assigned personnel with individual students and with the home through letters to parents, helps to encourage the practice of all of the so-called techniques listed herein to improve the intellectual quality of the school. This closeness not only makes the community and the home aware of one of the basic purposes of the school, but also is a type of publicity that every community appreciates. The end result then brings to administrators, teachers, and schools in general the higher esteem of laymen.

Summary of the presentation made by BOB G. WOODS

THERE are few professionally minded secondary-school principals who are not constantly seeking ways of improving the intellectual climate of their schools. Never before in the history of secondary education in this country has this need been so vivid to school administrators. Although it is difficult to obtain unanimity of opinion as to the best way to pursue improvement of the intellectual climate of a high school, there is general agreement that the key person for achieving this goal is the principal. The principal's attitude toward scholastic and cultural achievement is reflected by his faculty and, subsequently, by the student body and the community.

To win the respect of his faculty, the principal must possess a depth of knowledge in at least one academic field. This means keeping abreast of the current developments within this subject field and being especially well-informed of the modern methods and techniques of teaching the various courses within the field. In addition to being current and capable in his field of specialization, the competent principal reads extensively and is a connoisseur of literature. Evidence of his interest in new developments within his field of specialization and of his appreciation of good literature should be reflected by the books, periodicals, and other reading materials which adorn his office.

Of course, mere possession of desirable reading materials does not make the principal a scholar. In the final analysis, it is what he does with these materials that really matters. Unless the principal exercises prudence, he is inclined to become hopelessly bogged down with administrative minutia and pedantic redundancies to the point that study and the reading of worth-while literature are never accomplished. Even more distressing, he shackles his teachers with so many peripheral pedagogical chores that teaching becomes a side line.

The competent principal and his staff give precedence to the academic aspects of the curriculum. Teachers and pupils alike understand that classwork and study have priority over extracurricular activities. In schools possessing a high-level intellectual climate, students are seldom excused from class for any reason and are never excused to practice athletics, music, or other types of extracurricular activities.

The recognition which is received by students for high scholastic attainment from the principal and his staff also plays an important role in enhancing the intellectual climate of the school. Publicizing the names of the school's high-ranking students on national competitive examinations as well as the names of former students who have gained recognition for high scholastic achievement in college has a desirable effect on both school

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and community. Imagine the desirable effect upon the student body of the Highland Park High School in Dallas of the recent announcement that the top senior students at both West Point and the Naval Academy were graduates of that school.

The school's chapter of the National Honor Society merits a position of prestige and importance in school affairs. Publicizing the names of the members and the activities of this organization will help it to gain stature in the school and the community. While publicity of this type might not be as interesting reading to the lay public as an account of the success of the school's football team, it is far more valuable in stimulating interest in the intellectual endeavors of the school.

When judiciously administered, the selection and publishing of an honor roll has an over-all beneficial effect upon the academic climate of the school. Truly high academic achievement in all courses for the term should be a prerequisite for making the honor roll. In some schools, it is possible for the student to do very mediocre or poor work in one subject and still make the honor roll. Computing a student's eligibility for the honor roll on his over-all average for the term rather than establishing a minimum mark which must be met or exceeded in all courses in order to be considered is a questionable practice.

Some schools have established the policy of selecting the outstanding student or students within each subject field at the close of the academic year. In these schools, the outstanding biology or history student or students are selected and given an award in recognition of their achievement in these fields. This recognition can be given on a grade-level basis as well as on a subject basis. For example, the outstanding sophomore, junior, and senior students of English can be honored.

The faculty must not be overlooked in our intellectualization process. Emphasizing the need for each teacher to acquire a depth of knowledge in his field of specialization and to strive constantly for excellence in his teaching is imperative. Teachers need to participate in in-service training projects and to attend summer institutes. The professionally minded principal assists his teachers in obtaining scholarships and encourages them to attend special courses and workshops for professional betterment.

A truly professional principal utilizes every legitimate administrative device to enable his teachers to do the best possible teaching of which they are capable. Clearing the way for teachers to be teachers rather than bookkeepers, cashiers, clerks, and patrolmen is imperative. Encouraging interested and capable teachers to undertake research studies and to participate in action-research projects is highly desirable. Perhaps the best way to encourage the teachers to engage in research is for the principal to become involved in research projects himself.

Many of the secondary-school principals of Texas have become involved in research through the Texas Study of Secondary Education which is deserving of a brief explanation here. The purposes of the Texas Study of

Secondary Education are to conduct research germane to the problems of the secondary-school principals of Texas and to publish the findings of the research in its Research Bulletins and *The Journal of Secondary Education*. These publications are financed by the membership fees for the Texas Study (\$10 for schools with enrollments greater than 200 pupils above the eighth grade and \$5 for smaller schools). The sponsoring organizations include the Texas Association of Secondary-School Principals, Texas Association of School Administrators, Association of Texas Colleges, Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars, the Texas Education Agency, and the Hogg Foundation.

During the nineteen years of its existence, the Texas Study of Secondary Education has made phenomenal progress under the able leadership of its Coordinator, Dr. J. G. Umstattd, Professor of Secondary Education of the University of Texas. It is difficult to measure the impact of the Texas Study on secondary education in that state. However, the attendance and participation at its annual Spring Conference indicate the high esteem which the secondary-school administrators have for the Texas Study. During these conferences research papers are read, discussion sessions are held, and attention is focused upon the current problems of secondary education. It is also at these conferences where new problems for study are identified.

Not only have many principals become research conscious as a result of the Texas Study, but many have also employed the results of this research in bringing about improvements within their own schools. Few people who are well-acquainted with the work of the Texas Study of Secondary Education would deny that it has directly or indirectly made a valuable contribution to the intellectual climate of many of the secondary schools of Texas. Scholarship is contagious, but not extremely so. The principal and his staff must show the students the way. As Albert Swietzer has so aptly said, "Example is the only way of teaching."

Summary of the presentation made by LAWRENCE E. VREDEVOE

THE need for improvement of the "intellectual climate" of the secondary school is of vital importance in what has been called the soaring sixties which will be characterized by *research*, *battle of ideologies*, and demand for *quality* by colleges, employers, and governmental services. Then too, the majority of those enrolled in our high schools will be planning to continue their studies after graduation in programs where admission standards will be higher. Regardless of our likes or dislikes, the American high schools in this decade will have one thing at least in common with those

Lawrence E. Vredevoe is Professor of Education, University of California, Los Angeles, California.

in the first decade; namely, emphasis upon preparation for college work. The recognition of the need for college education and its value in commerce, industry, and governmental services is quite general. Six hundred (600), non-college parents were asked how far they desired their children to go in school and 492 emphasized college graduation. Although they had never attended college, they were willing to sacrifice in order that their sons and daughters could have what, to them, was essential to success in the present scheme of things.

The U. S. Office of Education, in comparing school data of 1920 and 1959 indicates that 23 per cent of the population was enrolled in our schools in 1920 compared to 26 per cent at present—an increase in numbers from 24 million to more than 46 million. Of this number, elementary schools enrolled 87.1 per cent in 1920 and 72 in 1959, secondary schools increased from 10.4 to 19.9 per cent during the same period, whereas college enrollments increased from 2.5 to 8.1 per cent. There were in 1920 one thousand professional schools, colleges, and universities enrolling 598,000 students and 4,894 *graduate* degrees were conferred. Today 2,000 professional schools, colleges, and universities enroll almost 4,000,000 students and in the year 1957-58 almost 75,000 graduate degrees were awarded. Bachelor's and first professional degrees increased from 48,622 in 1920 to 362,554 in 1959. These figures clearly indicate the trend, but do not reveal the momentum that has been generated for post-high-school work by this age of research.

The evaluation of the secondary school in the sixties will place greater emphasis upon the *competence* and *quality* of its graduates. *Moral and spiritual values*, and the *ability to get along with oneself and other people* are essential, but *scholarship or intellectual competence* must be recognized as one of the chief objectives of the secondary school. It should result from an atmosphere and climate within our schools which *encourages, stimulates, and motivates* students to develop good scholarship and competence. The improvement of this intellectual climate within the individual school can be accomplished by recognition of four basic needs for a quality program and a sincere effort to meet these needs:

1. Selection of *competent, qualified, and intellectually alert leaders for positions of administration and supervision*. A successful teacher, director of a school activity, or sport, or a good public relations person has a place in the school, but should be kept in his place. Some of our schools are handicapped by the placement of unqualified persons in positions of supervision administration. You can't expect intellectual drive and leadership when it was not part of the individual before he was appointed. The graduate units of work and degrees he has acquired may not be reliable in determining the qualifications. An analysis of the type, breadth, and challenge of the undergraduate should be made. Standards of scholarship range widely among institutions and within institutions themselves. Before appointing any individual to a position of supervision, the staff should be assured that he has demonstrated in his undergraduate work by the

type of intellectual challenge of the courses taken and his record that he qualifies scholastically in this age of research. If the major part of our secondary-school program is to be academic, which it will be in the sixties, how does the supervisory staff measure up academically? No need to kid ourselves. The intellectual climate is the result of the elements that constitute it. If some of the basic elements are missing, you can't have it. So begin with the careful selection and placement of those with *leadership* and *scholarship* in supervisory positions. One without the other should automatically bar consideration for administration or supervision.

2. *An in-service program which aims to keep all staff members mentally alert and awake.* Faculty meetings, institutes, departmental or area meetings, and conferences should be designed to enable teachers to get and exchange information about trends, practices, and materials in secondary education. Faculty and area meetings should be carefully planned and attendance required. Morning meetings before school may prove to be the best time with minimum conflicts. Too many in-service programs fail to get those who need them most. The intellectual atmosphere of the school will never improve if some continue to be so apologetic about requiring participation in meetings and programs designed for improvement of scholastic standards. Some in-service programs are not intellectually challenging and should be carefully re-evaluated and re-designed. Then participation by all should be expected.

3. *An instructional program which has challenge for all.* The task should be within the grasp of each student, but each student should find it necessary to stand on tip-toe to reach it. The poorest and the brightest should find the tasks assigned, activities, and experiences of the program challenging. Emphasis should be upon *production* in our assignments, not *reproduction*. The student should be encouraged to create, pioneer, and invent. This will not only develop a recognition for competence in the basic skills, but also their application to problem solving. Application of one's knowledge should be a part of every class and activity.

4. *An activity program for students which will stimulate their intellectual curiosity in social, scientific, economic, moral, and political developments.* This can be done through a carefully designed, and competently directed program of clubs, assemblies, and activities. The activity program of the school can serve as a focal point for the improvement of the intellectual climate. Emphasis should be upon providing stimulating, exciting, and intellectually challenging experiences which are designed for students. Adolescents have demonstrated that they will make sacrifices to participate in activities which are intellectually challenging and of value.

When we have the selection of supervisors on the basis of *leadership* and *scholarship*, an *intellectually challenging* in-service program for all personnel, an instructional program which *challenges* the individual student, and an activity program which seeks to *stimulate* and *encourage* intellectual curiosity on the part of the adolescents, we will find a decided improvement in the intellectual climate of the school.

WHAT CONSTITUTES AN ADEQUATE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING PROGRAM FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *W. Dale Chismore*, Regional Consultant, State Department of Public Instruction, Des Moines, Iowa

DISCUSSANTS:

Joseph E. Barber, Head, School-College Relations Section, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Department of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

J. E. Ferguson, Principal, Sam Houston Junior High School, Amarillo, Texas

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN E. BROWN

AGAIN and again we attempt to find a concrete answer for an abstract problem, but, until all variables are controlled and clearly defined, can we hope to find the "sixteen ounces equals one pound" answer to such a question as is posed for us to answer in one short discussion. Only can the question be answered in such general objectives as, the program should: "(1) help the pupil to understand himself; (2) teach the pupil how to get along with other people and to understand the world in which he lives; (3) help each pupil to get the most out of school; and (4) help the pupil explore his own interests and abilities, to learn about various aspects of the world of work, and to learn to make the most of his abilities."¹ All such generalities are important and necessary in determining what constitutes an adequate guidance and counseling program for any junior high school.

It is suggested the following basic principles be considered in determining such a program as we are here discussing:

1. The program be considered as important as other subjects and areas that have stood the test of time.
2. The scope of the program be determined after a cooperative study by the entire faculty.
3. Leadership be provided by the administrative staff of the school.
4. Only well-trained and highly qualified personnel be used to staff the program.
5. The program planned to include services to all boys and girls, not just problem children.
6. Provide for adequate housing, materials, and clerical help for the department.
7. Plan for periodic reports to the entire school faculty on results and activities of the school counseling staff.
8. Prepare and present to faculty, at needed intervals, materials of a guidance nature that will enable the classroom teacher to do a more effective job of teaching.

¹ THE BULLETIN, NASSP April 1956, p. 195.

John E. Brown is Principal of Alta Vista Junior High School, Carlsbad, New Mexico.

Only after such basic principles have been considered and acted upon, as far as existing conditions will permit, can the scope of an adequate guidance and counseling program be determined. May I offer for your consideration the following areas of service, common to most guidance programs:

1. Admission, enrollment, and orientation of new students
2. Registration and scheduling programs
3. Counseling in occupational and vocational fields
4. Planning educational programs, both for now and in the future
5. Successful school achievement
6. Guidance in job placement and/or extended educational levels
7. Orientation to next school beyond or termination
8. Help develop appreciation for good study habits and wise use of time
9. Solutions to personal problems and understanding self
10. Choosing wisely extracurricular activities
11. Overcoming or adjusting to handicaps
12. Explaining needs and abilities
13. Financial or other types of help from community or school agencies

While these areas are not all inclusive to guidance and counseling programs, they are common to most programs and can be used as guide posts in developing a program. In the final analysis, someone needs to determine the number of people to be retained to staff the guidance and counseling department. For those of us who still are seeking the formula—the exact recipe to produce the desired result—consider this formula for determining the number of counselors needed to staff a guidance program adequately in a junior high school. Using pupil enrollment as the sole determinant, and recognizing that the staff can be made up of full-time personnel as well as part-time (teacher counselors), this formula seems adequate to determine the number of staff.

$$P.T. = \frac{P.E. - 500}{300}$$

G.S. = Guidance Staff

$$G.S. = 1 + P.T.$$

P.T. = Part time (teacher counselors)

$$G.S. = 1 + \frac{P.E. - 500}{300}$$

P.E. = Pupil enrollment

For example, a junior high school enrolling 1,000 students under this formula would be entitled to two and two-thirds counselors or one full-time counselor and two or three part-time teacher counselors serving a total of eight periods (counting five periods of a six-period day as a full teaching load). These part-time teacher counselors could be assigned or scheduled as need dictates.

Realizing again that no one set formula or pattern of organization will work equally well in all junior high schools, plans should then suit the size, type, community, and financial limitations of each school.

As long as your plan follows the basic principles, provides the areas of services, and fulfills the general objectives listed here, and meets with the approval and financial limitations of your school and community, it can be safely said that it is *the* plan for an adequate guidance and counseling program for your junior high school.

Summary of the presentation made by RAYMOND A. DOLEN

IT IS extremely difficult to prescribe a detailed outline of a guidance program that may be used in all schools or communities. The program must be determined by the characteristics of the school and community, the needs of the pupils, and the attitude of the administrative and teaching personnel toward the guidance function. Regardless of adult and community attitudes, boys and girls in the early adolescent years are at a stage of growth between childhood and adulthood when they are urgently in need of group guidance and individual counseling.

AN EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM

In St. Paul, we feel that the guidance program is important—so important, in fact, that our new junior high schools provide time in our combination English-social studies (hereafter called core) teachers' schedules for guidance services to both students and parents. This is in addition to the regular counseling services provided by a trained and skilled counselor. Our experimental program which provides that all subjects are taught four hours per week instead of the conventional five hours makes it possible for us to give additional exploratory subject offerings and free our core teachers for guidance purposes three to four periods per week. A typical core teacher's program looks like this:

Period	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1	Conference	Conference	Eng.E.-St. 7F	Conference	Conference
2	Math 8	Preparation	Math 8	Math 8	Math 8
3	Eng.-S.St. 7F	Eng.E.-St. 7F	Club or Assembly	Eng.E.-St. 7F	Eng.E.-St. 7F
4	Eng.-S.St. 7F	Eng.E.-St. 7F	Preparation	Preparation	Eng.E.-St. 7F
5	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Eng.-S.St. 7B
6	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Eng.-S.St. 7B	Activity	Preparation	Eng.-S.St. 7B

R. A. Dolen is Principal of the Highland Park Junior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota.

THE ROLE OF THE CORE TEACHER

Core teachers meet their two core classes eight hours each week. They teach an additional subject such as mathematics or speech, depending on their qualifications. Their total teaching hours per week may vary from 21 to 22, including a club and a pupil-interest activity. Such block of time programming has the advantage of scheduling students to one teacher for longer than the conventional one period per day and reduces the number of different pupils a teacher meets in a day. The longer block of time affords the students a gradual and effective means of adjusting from the self-contained classroom of elementary schools to the different-teacher-every-period senior high-school plan. Early adolescents need this close relationship with one teacher to whom they can turn for sympathetic understanding and help. The core teacher acts as the adviser-teacher for both core classes. The block method of scheduling that is used has the additional advantage of programming the same group of peers for most of the daily schedule which makes for a feeling of *esprit de corps* so necessary for this age group.

During the time allowed in the core teacher's schedule for conferences, she may confer with students in need of individual help, visit homes, or conduct parent conferences at school, in addition to maintaining cumulative records and folders which are kept on file in her classroom. Core teachers make every effort to see each of the parents at least once during the school year. Through the parent conferences, the pupil feels the support of the closely knit parent-teacher relationship and, with this understanding, the staff finds the pupil has a different attitude toward the teacher and the school.

STAFF INVOLVEMENT

This enlargement of responsibility for the guidance program helps develop a guidance approach among all faculty members since their colleagues, the core teachers, are so intimately associated with guidance. All teachers feel an involvement in the program when their opinion is requested in individual evaluations of students whose parents are scheduled for conferences with core teachers. Evaluation blanks are submitted to other members of the staff by the core teacher with a request that they be completed and returned prior to the parent-core teacher conference. These teachers are frequently able to give valuable information concerning a pupil which may not have been evident to the core teacher. In the less formal academic subjects such as art, crafts, music, industrial arts, home-making, and physical education, new insights into student behavior may be observed that are helpful when conducting a parent conference. Teachers of these and other subjects may be called into the conference when it is thought advisable. Cooperation of the entire staff is necessary if this program is to succeed.

THE ROLE OF THE COUNSELOR

In such a program the core teacher does not eliminate a trained guidance person, but it does mean that skilled counselors use their time differently than in schools not using adviser-teachers. More of his time is spent in working closely with the core teachers in furnishing data on students and helping them to understand better the physical, mental, social, and emotional characteristics of early adolescents. Before the fall opening of school, he provides all teachers with class rosters which list scores on scholastic aptitude and achievement tests. Cumulative folders give personal and family background, health, attendance, scholarship, and special interests are made available to the teachers. These are utilized by all teachers, but especially by the core teachers, as an aid to studying and understanding the individual students and the class.

While the teacher works with individuals in the group setting, the counselor concentrates his personal attention in the pupil with a minor problem as well as the more serious deviate or maladjusted pupil. As a key member of the pupil-problems committee consisting of the assistant principal, nurse, and visiting teacher, he works cooperatively in making case studies, obtaining assistance from community agencies; working closely with teachers, parents, or guardian; and planning therapy.

Much of the counselor's time is spent in the in-service training of new personnel in counseling techniques and procedures. He also has important responsibilities in the testing program, in orientating incoming students, in programming of new students, in conferring with parents, and in acting as a resource person in vocational and educational guidance.

STUDENT AND PARENT ORIENTATION

An adequate guidance and counseling program must make provision for the adjustment to the new school for both students and parents. A school visitation day for incoming students as well as a "New Parents' Night" may be helpful for such orientation. In addition, orientation films or slides, student handbooks, brochures for parents, student council "Big Brother" and "Big Sister" organizations, and school maps provide valuable assistance in making a successful transition to the new school.

WHAT ARE SOME IMAGINATIVE APPROACHES TO GOOD SCHEDULING PRACTICES FOR SCHOOL AND STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *Carl Beckstrom*, Principal, George Read Junior High School, New Castle, Delaware

DISCUSSANTS:

Roland W. Hunsader, Principal, High School, Fort Atkinson, Wisconsin
W. Leon Mason, Principal, J. E. B. Stuart High School, Falls Church, Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by K. A. TIDRICK

MANY variations of scheduling have grown out of a continuous effort on the part of principals to get the greatest efficiency out of the school day. The schedule in any particular school is dependent on many factors: type of community, activities, faculty, educational facilities, *etc.* The advent of Sputnik ushered in other factors: pressure for more time spent in mathematics and science, gifted students, and ability groupings. These are not new since Sputnik. They have been in our educational formula for years. However, most will agree that Sputnik was the catalyst which touched off quite a reaction in that direction.

Never before has there been so much public interest in secondary education and so much pressure on the secondary school to teach subject matter as such. The secondary program is under the microscope of public scrutiny. The schedule is like the table of contents in a "best seller." What then are some imaginative approaches to good scheduling practices for school and student? I suggest the following as fundamentally sound.

Pre-High School Planning: This involves an orientation unit in the ninth grade for schools on the 6-3-3 plan, the eighth grade for schools on the 8-4 or other organizational arrangements. Pre-planning should involve teacher-pupil planning or counselor-pupil planning and parent-pupil and school coordination. A three- or four-year tentative educational plan should be developed. This may be done in individual or group situations. High-school offerings, pupil aptitudes, vocational and college requirements are among the things which should be considered in this planning. The parent's signature on the pupil's program is rather important at this stage.

Pre-registration: Pre-registration is a rather helpful practice in building a good schedule free of subject conflicts. It should be done early enough in the second semester to allow counselors or teachers sufficient time to examine students' programs and counsel them on subject choices.

K. A. Tidrick is Principal of Walla Walla High School, Walla Walla, Washington.

Career Days and College Conferences: A career day in which people from the community representing professions and trades come into the school and talk to groups of students about their particular vocation is a helpful scheduling device. There are many variations of this practice, but a practical method is to use an afternoon or morning divided into two or three periods. College conferences may follow a similar pattern using representatives from colleges in a local service area who orient students about their college.

Punch Card System: The actual construction of the schedule can be expedited by the use of a punch-card system. Space limitation prevents a detailed explanation, but schools using this system report excellent results. It saves considerable time and can be used to advantage for statistical studies and as a guidance aid, particularly in scheduling programs for superior students. A detailed explanation of a punch-card system can be found in the October 1958 NAASP BULLETIN. The article is entitled "A New Look in Schedule Building," by James F. O'Brien. Two cards known to the writer are the Unisort Analysis card, Form Y-9 by Todd Co., Inc., and the Keysort card by the Royal McBee Co.

The electronic punch-card system operated by IBM is of course gaining in use. This system, while considerably more expensive, can be used for purposes other than scheduling. Grade reporting and attendance may also be done. This is a time-saving device for the classroom teacher and eliminates much teacher clerical help.

Division of Time: No other factor in scheduling calls for more imagination or ingenuity on the part of the principal than the division of time in the schedule. Dr. J. Lloyd Trump in the pamphlet *Images of the Future* suggests the school of the future will be organized around a schedule that provides for three types of activities: (1) *large-group* instruction (100 or more students, depending on enrollment) having 12 hours per week of instruction; (2) *small group* discussion (12-15 students) meeting 6 hours per week; and (3) *individual study* (1-3 students) meeting 6 hours per week. The implications for secondary schedules brought about by the "race for space" are, to say the least, challenging.

Summary of the presentation made by RALPH E. WRIGHT

IN THIS presentation I shall attempt to describe practices which seem to me to reflect originality and initiative. These practices are based upon experiences at two schools—the first at Lincoln-Way Community High School, New Lenox, Illinois, and the second at John Marshall Senior High in Rochester, Minnesota.

Ralph E. Wright is Principal of John Marshall Senior High School, Rochester, Minnesota.

Since Sputnik and the Conant report, we have examined our class schedule to see how students can get more class periods in the day. Some of our partial solutions are:

1. Juniors and seniors carrying five subjects may be excused from Physical Education.
2. An "early-bird class" (7:30-8.15 A.M.) is being considered for students who need to carry an additional subject.
3. Our summer program provides opportunities for students to take extra subjects which could not otherwise be scheduled.

Our summer courses are divided into two categories—enrichment by non-credit courses and by credit courses. Our required courses, English and social studies, are offered each year. Many students take these courses in summer in order to take others during the regular school year.

Beginning next September, two classes in World History will meet together in a larger-than-ordinary room for three days per week and in small discussion groups for two days per week. Two teachers will share responsibility for teaching the joint sessions of the classes; but they will alternate in being chiefly responsible for selected instructional units. This team-teaching arrangement will include joint planning and development of instructional materials. The large or joint group will be used for such teaching functions as introduction, explanation, lecture, instructional films, summary, and evaluation.

This summer in typing we will have a double room furnished with 60 typewriters under the direction of one teacher who will be teaching an "enrichment" personal typing course. From experience gained in this non-credit class, we hope to find out whether or not it will be wise to continue experiments with a master teacher assisted by a teacher aide or secretary in our regular classes.

During this past year, we found that in an Art II class we had scheduled 40 students with a teacher who had heavy classes throughout the day. We now have another teacher with an art minor acting as an assistant to the teacher in the large class.

Several years ago at Lincoln-Way three other teachers and myself taught a quarter in one of the following areas in a course called Senior Common Learning: Science in Everyday Living; Family Living; Social Problems; Self-Appraisal and Careers. While this particular arrangement did not become a permanent one, the cooperating faculty members learned some things about working together and about other teaching fields.

Teachers in our freshman Common Languages Program (correlated English and social studies) were scheduled with the same conference period and met regularly for conferences regarding course work and students.

Both high schools referred to above are campused high schools and both have transportation problems for students. At Lincoln-Way, a 22-minute activity period was added to the schedule each day to provide for club meetings, guidance group discussions, assemblies, pep meetings, *etc.*, and special activity busses were provided after school for GAA, music groups, and special activities as well as for athletic teams.

Each of these two schools has four lunch periods divided equally between two one-hour class periods. During this two-hour span of time, at any given moment, half of the student body is in class, a quarter is eating lunch, and the other quarter is assigned to study or other activity.

At Lincoln-Way, freshman chorus groups and other music sectionals have made excellent use of this time. On another occasion, students in a small science seminar class met for a half hour each day throughout the year and were given a half credit. In Rochester, we are using this time at present for home-room guidance activities on two days a week and, on the other three days, the time is used for study, music sectionals, counseling, or other special activities.

Ability grouping has been practiced in the Rochester Senior High School for some time. During the past year, we have offered an Advanced Placement course in English and one in biology. We have student interest in other fields for next year, and we plan to schedule these students in junior college classes on an individual basis.

During the summer, the assistant principal and the counselors make out individual class schedules and place students according to individual needs and scheduling policies established earlier. The amount of special grouping makes this process quite complicated and tedious. It is hoped that much of the routine work will be lessened when IBM machines will be employed in the process which is scheduled to take place in 1961. However, we realize that machines cannot furnish the imagination, the creativity, and the special attention needed to devise and implement individual programs.

WHAT RECENT DEVELOPMENTS IN GROUPING STUDENTS FOR EFFECTIVE INSTRUCTION?

CHAIRMAN: W. F. Wisnieski, Principal, High School, Brecksville, Ohio

DISCUSSANTS:

William H. Rhodes, Principal, High School, Princeton, New Jersey

William L. Warren, Principal, Emerson Junior High School, Livonia, Michigan

PANEL:

T. Marcus Gillespie, Principal, Francis C. Hammond High School, Alexandria, Virginia

Harold F. Gray, Principal, Clover Park High School, Tacoma, Washington

John D. Scheller, Principal, Amherst Central Senior High School, Snyder, New York

Eugene H. Van Vliet, Principal, Senior High School, Tenaflly, New Jersey

Summary of the presentation made by T. MARCUS GILLESPIE

IN THE interest of brevity, the *pros* and *cons* of ability grouping will not be enumerated or debated here. Rather, we will give general acceptance to some of the widely held views as to the advantages of having some type of ability grouping at the secondary-school level. Since the term homogeneity is a relative term, we will embrace the philosophy of reduced heterogeneity rather than that which envisions a homogeneous group. Billett has rather facetiously pointed out that there is only one sense in which a group of pupils is homogeneous—all are *homines sapientes*. In this sense, the task of the school principal is no greater than that of keeping stray dogs and cats out of the building.

Some of the advantages to be gained by ability grouping are: (1) the range of individual differences is reduced to the extent that the teacher can more nearly reach the pupils in his class; (2) the methods and materials can be adjusted to the ability of the group; and (3) members of the group will progress at more nearly the same rate. With these brief assumptions as background, it will be my purpose here to do two things, with little effort or attention given to the defense of either. *First*, I will attempt to explain the practice in relation to the grouping of pupils as it has existed during the past three and one-half years at Hammond High School. *Second*, I will discuss briefly the proposed plans for grouping pupils beginning with the 1960-61 session.

T. Marcus Gillespie is Principal of the Francis C. Hammond High School, Alexandria, Virginia.

RECENT AND CURRENT PRACTICES

Frances C. Hammond High School, one of four secondary schools in the Alexandria City Public School system, opened its doors in the fall of 1956. Since, by family design and by ability, our pupil population is approximately seventy per cent college preparatory, we feel that some homogeneity occurs naturally. In view of the fact that our offering is comprehensive in nature, we feel that, under good guidance, natural selective grouping has also occurred to a reasonable extent. Our approach to the question of grouping has been, therefore, somewhat deliberate and conservative. To say this a bit differently, we have felt that reduced heterogeneity has been accomplished to a reasonable degree through the process of having pupils schedule their courses under the guidance of four full-time guidance counselors. The guidance section of our administrative manual outlines the procedures, sequence of courses, and general framework under which this process operates.

In addition to this natural grouping, we have done some grouping of slow learners in freshman English and in general mathematics. In these instances, the criteria used has been past achievement, reading level, and intelligence quotient. Some grouping also has been done in algebra, plane geometry, and chemistry.

We are currently affording acceleration in algebra and French at the eighth-grade level, using the process of selective grouping. In order to qualify for algebra at the eighth-grade level a pupil must have: (1) an average grade of B or above in upper-grade arithmetic, (2) an I.Q. of 110 or above, (3) a score of 35 or above on the *Orlenas Algebra Prognosis Test*, (4) satisfactory emotional adjustment, and (5) a recommendation from the seventh-grade teacher and principal. Of six classes in accelerated algebra, one class was made up of the 24 pupils who scored highest on the algebra prognosis test. The remainder of those who qualified were divided equitably among the other five sections. The pupils who presently comprise the three classes in accelerated French were screened as follows: (1) average grade of B or above in upper-grade English, (2) an I.Q. of college preparatory level, (3) a score of 102 on the *Luria-Orleans Modern Language Prognosis Test*, (4) satisfactory health and emotional adjustment, and (5) a recommendation from the seventh-grade teacher and principal.

Selective grouping is used in screening candidates for a senior mathematics course which deals with the introduction to analytics and calculus. In order to qualify for this course, a pupil must have: (1) prerequisite courses in algebra (2 years), plane geometry, solid geometry, and trigonometry; (2) an average grade of B or above in all prerequisite mathematics courses; (3) approval of the head of the mathematics department.

PROPOSED PLAN FOR GROUPING

In connection with plans for 1960-61, there is a city-wide committee working under the leadership of the high-school coordinator which is making a study of ability grouping. A progress report of this committee indicates the probable direction which will be taken in this regard. Some of the provisions contained in the progress report are:

1. That the secondary schools group all pupils according to individual abilities whenever feasible. Grouping will be applied in all multiple sections of required courses, and likely will be applied in academic electives.

2. In doing this grouping, the following criteria will be kept in mind: intelligence tests scores, achievement test scores, reading level, past grades, teacher recommendation, and health and emotional adjustment.

3. That three groups be formed, with the various points in the criteria being regarded as guideposts rather than as hard and fast requirements. The *top group* will consist of those who have 120 I. Q. or above, reading ability of two or more grades above grade level, and subject achievement above grade level. The *middle group* will consist of those who have I. Q.'s from 90 to 119, reading ability within the span of one grade above and one grade below normal grade level, and subject at or near grade level. The *lower group* will consist of those who have an I. Q. below 90, reading ability more than one year below grade level, and subject achievement below grade level. Past grade record, teacher recommendation, health and emotional adjustment will be considered in all cases.

4. It is further suggested that the fine details of the implementation of the program be left to the administration, guidance department, and subject area faculties of the individual schools, with curriculum objectives being kept in focus. The program should be continuously evaluated and adjusted when necessary.

5. Implementation of a successful program of grouping involves good public relations. Parents, pupils, and teachers need to understand the program and to lend their cooperation. Sound guidance procedures should be used and the provisions of the program should remain flexible. The grades of the individual pupil should reflect his achievement in relation to the level of his placement.

CONCLUDING REMARKS

It occurs to this writer that perhaps too much has been stated and written concerning the virtues and the mechanics of grouping without appropriate attention to the processes which should follow. It is trite indeed to say that a school or school system which engages in the mere mechanics of grouping because it is educationally fashionable is doing that which is professionally indefensible. In order for a program of grouping to succeed, we must have, among other things, teachers who are qualified by personality, willingness, training, and experience to work with particular groups. Instructional procedures must be adapted to the needs,

interests, and abilities of the members of the group. Schools must have some freedom in choosing or recommending teaching materials which are designed to accomplish the purposes of the group. To whatever extent these and related conditions are not satisfied, to that degree will the effectiveness of pupil grouping be nullified.

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD F. GRAY

HOMOGENEOUS grouping, once thought to be the cure for most of the educational ills caused by misgrouping of students, was abandoned in many places later. Educators realized that academic ability and achievement alone did not provide a sufficient basis for grouping of students. It was discovered that since there were so many other factors that perhaps it was best to leave students in their natural age or grade groups and attempt to deal with individual differences by making adjustments within the classroom. It became evident that it is easier for an educational theorist to prescribe such an educational diet than it is for the harrassed classroom teacher to provide such a "smorgasbord" of concurrent learnings to a heterogeneous group.

Recently, however, we have again become aware that the advantages of ability groupings were not completely negated by the disadvantages. The recent interest expressed not only by educators but also by numerous lay persons in the importance of providing a better learning situation for the so-called "gifted" student has again brought into focus the importance of grouping of students for the most effective instruction.

At Clover Park High School, we believe that grouping is important and must be done for the most effective instruction in some areas. In other subjects, we believe that there is greater advantage to the individual student to be grouped heterogeneously. There is considerable value to both the rapid learner and the slow learner in being in the same classes. The rapid learner can gain considerable advantage by helping the slow learner. By the same token, the slow learner can receive special attention and instruction by working with one who is more skilled than himself.

Students frequently advance in so-called "spurts." For the most part, the learning process is not constant as far as rate of achievement is concerned. Incentive, rapport between teacher and pupil, and many other factors bear heavily upon the rate of learning. There is a stigma attached to being grouped with those that are not so able to achieve academically. A person misplaced in a low ability group may suffer as a result of the attitude of his fellows.

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Placement in ability groups should remain as fluid as possible. A student placed in a group should be reassigned when it becomes evident that he does not belong in that group. In certain academic areas, we have what we call "Honors Sections" which provide some of the objectives which appear to be desirable in challenging the "gifted student." No matter how carefully groups are selected, there will still be considerable differences of individual ability within the group. This will provide a continuing challenge to the classroom teacher. In an "Honors Section," the quantity and the quality of work expected will be substantially higher than that in classes not under this type of grouping. In fairness to the individual student, he and his parents should have the opportunity to accept or to reject the invitation to become a member of such an honors group. It is important that the individual student should weigh carefully his obligations—not only in his academic classes, but also the amount of time and energy required by participation in the school's extracurricular activities, community or church organizations, recreational activities, duties at home, and outside employment.

Once a decision is made to accept membership in a class of "high achievers," it is mandatory that there is provided a means whereby the student will not be penalized in marks since many of these students are applicants to institutions of higher learning with highly selective admission policies. We use a simple modification of the grading system in Honors Sections which provides for adequate recognition. Students nominated for Honors Sections normally are A or B level in sections grouped heterogeneously. Therefore, it is not equitable to grade such sections on the same basis as classes not skewed in this manner. This discourages students who are under pressure to accumulate a high-grade point average to reject the opportunity to be in a group in which they can profit most.

We have modified the conventional marking system which provides an A worth four points, a B worth three points, a C worth two points, a D worth one point, and a failure not worth any points. We have added a super-maximum grade. For the want of a better symbol, we designate it an "H" grade. A student in an "Honors Section" who achieves at a level substantially in advance of an "A" grade in a regular section both as to the quantity and the quality of work accomplished, may receive an "H" grade. This "H" grade is awarded five points in the computation of Grade Point Averages. The transcript of a student who has received an "H" grade provides an interpretation of significance of the mark. It is intended that a student in an Honors Section will receive approximately the same grade as he would have received in a regular section with similar achievement. This results in there being a few "Hs," but mostly "As" and "Bs" in the Honors Section. A student who receives a grade lower than "B" probably will be re-assigned to a regular section if it is determined that

he has been misplaced. It is the intention that he can be inspired to achieve at a higher rate.

Other devices have been devised to denote the level of achievement of those in special groups. For a time, one or another of the many devices will probably become commonly used by most schools. We like our system since it is simple and easily understood with a minimum of explanation. It is important that teachers and others who are participating in such a program clearly understand and agree with the philosophy of the program in order that it might be effective.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN D. SCHELLER

GROUPING is an administrative device which enables a school to provide a variety of levels of instruction for students of different abilities and interests. There is a need for a specific curriculum for the fast, average, and slow groups. This need is not merely for programs which contain less or more of the same material, but the need for different materials, written curriculums, teaching materials, texts, etc., built around the ability, interests, and needs of both the college-bound and non-college-bound student. Grouping implies a constant search for better methods of instruction and better materials for the different groups.

Ability grouping is provided on an individual subject basis in English, social studies, science, and mathematics. The assignments are made by a placement committee on the basis of mental ability, reading tests, standardized achievement tests, past performance in the subject, and teacher recommendation.

The four groups used at Amherst Central Senior High School are:

M. *Minimum Program of Basic Essentials Covered at a Slower Pace, Non-Regents Curriculum*

Qualifications:

- A. Intelligence quotient—75-95 (below average mental ability)
- B. Reading level—two grades or more below level
- C. Low achievement scores

The group must not become a catch-all for all the misfits. We cannot treat, as slow learners, those pupils whose problem is basically different. The pupil assigned to this group should be one whose poor achievement in school is principally a result of low intelligence. He has the right to be in a class where the requirements fall within his competence and where maximum effort on his part will enable him to succeed in the course. Most of all, he needs an accepting teacher who can adapt the curriculum to his ability level and still give him the

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hard core of learning necessary for effective living. This is not only a matter of speed, but also a matter of method and a definition of objective.)

R. *The Regular, Standard Curriculum for This Grade and Subject Qualifications:*

A. Average ability—96-109 I.Q.

B. This group will include many pupils who are not college bound as well as some who will seek further training beyond high school—technical institutes, junior colleges, etc.

C. Reading level is less than two grades below grade level, particularly in the ability to get the main idea and in the ability to read for detail.

S. *Enriched Program for Students of Superior Aptitude and Achievement*

Qualifications:

A. Academically able

B. Pupils who have the mentality, maturity, and motivation to seek further education beyond high school. They would have the potential to qualify for admission to the 4-year degree granting institutions.

C. Reading level is at least two years above grade level.

A.P. *Preparation for Advanced Placement Tests Program of the College Entrance Examination Board*

Qualifications:

A. Superior ability, high motivation, top potential

B. About the top 10 per cent of our academically able students should be encouraged to participate in this program early in their junior high-school years. This would permit the acceleration necessary for the Advanced Placement Program.

C. Reading level is at least two years above grade level.

Summary of the presentation made by EUGENE H. VAN VLIET

BY GIVING our historical curricular development as we discuss our present programs, we visualized the possibility of assisting other schools in their curricular development as an evaluation of our work is seen within the framework of their own status and direction. Like many high schools in the past, Tenaflly High School had various curricula for student choice. Provision for individual difference was made within the limits of

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each curriculum and by any chance grouping achieved by student course selection. When small numbers elected an advanced course on the basis of specialized abilities and proven accomplishment, quite good grouping was attained. As the proportion of each grade level registered in each subject increased, the very numbers led to heterogeneous distribution of students as regarded aims and abilities, and, by like degree, the possible provisions for individual differences decreased.

In the thirties, the single curriculum was authorized. This was a significant step forward for the individual student. Social pressures to be graduated from a classical or specific curriculum had no more effect—each student received the same diploma. Scientific educational or vocational aims became the guiding force for course selection.

Previous to 1955, however, the philosophy was still random, unplanned designation of students for home room and a consciously planned heterogeneous distribution for classes. Under the single curriculum, the numbers of boys and girls were kept in balance, but a definite attempt was made to have all classes heterogeneous in terms of ability. Some group classification occurred in a combination of Latin and English in a block, of secretarial practice and second-year stenography in a block; the other grouping was purely by accident on the basis of course selection.

With the beginning of the school year 1955-56, since this was a six-year high school, the approach to group classification was done in two main categories: first, seventh and eighth grade; second, ninth through twelfth grade. In seventh and eighth grades, on the basis of information gained from the sixth and seventh grades, students were classified to evolve two top section. This meant sections of about twenty-seven, two on the seventh-grade level, and two on the eighth-grade. These groups were scheduled as a block in English and social studies. Likewise, in the seventh grade in mathematics, students of unusual ability in arithmetic were scheduled to take seventh- and eighth-grade arithmetic in one year. Outside of this classification of blocking in English, social studies, and mathematics, a definite conscious attempt was made to insure heterogeneity in all other subjects for the seventh- and eighth-grade students. In the grades nine through twelve, a definite, conscious attempt was made to insure heterogeneity in home room, but specialized sections in English, social studies, and mathematics were set up in terms of student goals, student ability, and student achievement. In science, the same attempt was made to have students of superior ability in biology, in physics, and in chemistry put in sections where they could progress according to their ability. In order to insure heterogeneity in home rooms, the members of the faculty were asked to classify students in terms of scholastic ability and terms of citizenship. The principal then scheduled home rooms with an even distribution of boys and girls, an even distribution of academically able people, and an even distribution of

people good in citizenship and an equal distribution of students weak in citizenship.

In the school year 1956-57, the separation of the six-year high school into a junior and senior high school had its first concrete fulfillment. The school was placed on double sessions with one principal in charge of both sessions, but the staffs divided into almost two separate staffs. In the junior high school, the use of two special sections in a block in English and social studies for advanced work was continued both in the seventh and in the eighth grade. Superior, qualified students had eighth-grade arithmetic in the seventh grade. The students in social studies were classified under ninth grade according to ability. At the ninth grade, English and social studies were separated, not taught as a block, but two talented groups in each area were formed on the basis of *many criteria*. English then was continued in the senior high school on this classification through grades twelve. With U.S. History I and II this was likewise done. With plane geometry, intermediate algebra, trigonometry, and solid geometry, in addition to this grouping, an attempt in mathematics was made to introduce the recommendations of the Commission on Mathematics. In science, we continued to have two specialized groups: in chemistry, out of a total of eight classes; in physics, out of a total of five classes; in biology, we had two talented groups out of a total of nine classes. In plane geometry, we had two specialized groups, and so on through the various areas. In the commercial field, the separation was on the basis of choice of subject. This really was the year in which we began acceleration in addition to our group classification and enrichment on that basis. *I would say that at about this time we became convinced that the people who painted dire community results found out that the community was interested in our raising the ceiling for our students who were capable so that they would be more thoroughly prepared for college work and we would not have the students who received "A's" in high school coming back from college worried sick because they were receiving "D's" or failures.*

In the school year 1957-58, the second step in separation of the two schools was achieved by inauguration of two separate administrations. This is the year in which we intended to refine even more completely our program for abler students. The final step of the separation of the six-year high school into two separate schools was achieved in April 1958 when the senior high-school pupils moved into the new building which is now occupied by Tenaflly Senior High School.

SEPARATION OF SCHOOLS

Junior High School

The new principal continued to improve the grouping arrangement and curriculum development. A set of criteria was formulated and distributed to the elementary schools in order to gain an early selection of the honors

group. The choice of Algebra I or French I was offered to the eighth-grade honors group; music, art, science, and shop were taught on a trimester basis; and the English-social studies block covered three periods of the day.

With separate schools in action, some innovations occurred in 1958-59 in the junior high school. The seventh-grade honors groups were formed on the basis of criteria already established with the elementary-school principals. There were two such groups, and the other seven were divided in a modified homogeneous fashion. Students were not picked haphazardly; they were not chosen strictly by I.Q. and test record either. Actually, the objective was to set up seventh- and eighth-grade home-room and class groups that would not provide a teacher with too great a range of ability. Thus the poorest group scholastically was not a homogeneous body of slow learners, discipline problems, and emotionally disturbed individuals—as might well be the case with strict homogeneous selection. Other changes in 1958-59 included (1) the addition of French II, Russian I, Plane Geometry, German I, and advanced general science at the ninth-grade level; (2) the expectation that honors groups would take both algebra and French I during eighth grade; (3) the reduction of the English-social studies block to two periods; (4) the development of a Latin I-English I block; (5) the placement of two or more able homogeneous classes in the ninth grade in practically all subject areas; and (6) the establishment of a five-period week over the half year in art, music, science, and shop.

The year 1959-60 marks the extension of French as a conversational program at the seventh-grade level. It has been offered to the honors classes there and to one other group on a full year, five day per week basis. We retreated from our requirement that all honors students must have French I and algebra and wrote letters offering a choice (only two of 50 reduced the load by choosing one of these two subjects).

Senior High-School Development and Articulation

In the school year 1958-59, the first full year in the new senior high-school building, the revision of the English curriculum took more concrete steps. Russian I and German III were added to our curriculum, in preparation for teaching more than three years of a modern foreign language as the acceleration from the junior high school caught up with us. A separate course in music was planned for preliminary work for introduction in the school year 1959-60. Non-credit courses were added during the activity period to develop skills for those who needed them. The driver education program was put in that area so that it would not take away from the academic period. In the English department, we continued to have two talented sections following an intensified and enriched program, whereas the other sections on each level maintained the basic framework of the English curriculum, with emphasis on modern materials, on a great deal of composition work as well as the usual work in grammar, mechanics,

and literature. This year in mathematics, the junior high school continued its teaching of algebra to talented eighth-grade pupils, its teaching of plane geometry to talented ninth-grade pupils, and sent the first group of tenth-grade pupils ready to take intermediate algebra in its revised form. In the meantime, we separated our college preparatory mathematics. Instead of calling it just trigonometry and solid geometry, we followed more closely the recommendation of the Commission on Mathematics and had several graduations of College Preparatory Mathematics: four sections—Section #1 superior to #2, #2 distinctly superior to #3 and #4, Nos. 3 and 4 somewhat alike. In the field of Plane Geometry and Algebra II, likewise, we separated at least two sections on the basis of superior ability. We continued the same policy in chemistry, biology, and physics. We began to separate our students in foreign languages—French and Spanish—on the basis of ability. With German, there were too few to make much difference since the students taking German were superior to begin with, and we had too few classes to make much of a difference. However, with Russian, we were teaching Russian I in the junior high school and Russian I in the senior high school. The junior high school, meanwhile, was intensifying its early introduction of modern foreign language so that we were ready to receive people at the senior high school who had had several years of a modern foreign language.

In the school year 1959-60, the English curriculum was in its last stages so that in 1960-61 the changes will have been completely through our grade levels. In addition, we have added on each level one seminar class in addition to a talented class as separated from the regular college preparatory English. The changes of mathematical reasoning continue in Plane Geometry. We separated the tenth-grade students taking Plane Geometry on the basis of ability, having two honor sections. In addition, we had outstanding tenth-grade students who are now taking intermediate algebra during the tenth grade and who are one year ahead of their time in mathematics. In music, we introduced the full unit course for talented pupils in that area. In English, we have gradually reduced the number of students in each class and have made our seminars quite small. In addition, the English teachers, generally speaking, taught only four classes. The College Prep Math for the senior year was on four different levels. There were talented sections for eleventh-grade students in intermediate algebra and also talented sections in intermediate algebra for tenth-grade students as well as the regular sections. The tenth-grade students taking intermediate algebra were a year ahead of time and will be ready two years from now to give us the students who will take a full college course in calculus, analytic geometry, or with work in the field of statistics. Since the tenth-grade students who took Plane Geometry in the ninth grade were the supposedly best ones, we are experimenting with two of the best of the remaining tenth-grade students taking Plane Geometry. Here, by continuing the grouping, we took care of those who transferred

from other schools or those who developed their outstanding abilities late. In physics, we had one talented section, although a second was considered to be almost its equal. In chemistry, we introduced a seminar of only fifteen students with a double lab period, two days a week. The second best chemistry section was of only eighteen students and had one double lab period a week. There are eight chemistry sections. In biology, we had two talented sections, one of 21 students and one of 24. All the science classes were limited to 24 students.

In foreign language, we have a difficult time. We have picked out no talented section in the first-year French since presumably the students of outstanding language ability had taken first-year French in the junior high school. The students in the senior high school taking first-year French were the average students taking it as tenth- or eleventh-grade students. For second-year French, we separated the one class of outstanding students who were eleventh-grade students and a second best class of eleventh-grade students, plus the other second-year French classes. In third-year French, we had two sections of graduated ability of twelfth-grade students taking third-year French and one class of presumably outstanding students taking third-year French who were only tenth- and eleventh-grade students. In Spanish, since this was not introduced in the junior high school, we did our usual grouping based on our own experience with the students. The only students taking third-year Spanish, therefore, were twelfth-grade students. Since there were two sections, they were divided on the basis of ability. We continued our program in German, making preparation for continuation of German into third and fourth years. We are finding on the basis of our experience that we will, in the future, probably disregard entirely the grade level of the students and classify them according to their ability to use the foreign language.

HOW BEST TO ORGANIZE AND COORDINATE THE ADMINISTRATIVE AND SUPERVISORY STAFF IN THE LARGE URBAN HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Philip H. Vercoe*, Principal, Central High School, Flint, Michigan

DISCUSSANTS:

Ralph C. Johnson, Principal, Wyandotte High School, Kansas City, Kansas

Leonard A. Szudy, Principal, Central High School, West Allis, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT V. COGGER

RAPIDLY expanding secondary-school enrollments and the increasing complexities in administering the modern secondary school have made this topic extremely vital. To perform administrative and supervisory functions in a democratic and effective manner, school officials must seek improved organizational patterns and procedures, even as American business has sought to strengthen and improve its operations.

Improvement of instruction should continue to be a primary goal in each school, and administrative organization should be geared as efficiently as possible to help carry out this purpose. Each community has its own set of characteristics. Also, each high school has varying factors in terms of building size, numbers of students and faculty, and type and amount of professional and clerical assistance. Administrative and supervisory structures vary accordingly. However, these patterns should fit into the framework of the central or district staff and be carried out with the approval of the central administration.

Basic Purposes of School

Although a high school's specific characteristics in structure, purposes, and professional makeup may vary, there are some well-defined guideposts which may be observed in working out the organizational plan. The school's main objectives need to be clarified by the cooperative efforts of administration and faculty. Periodic evaluation of these aims is necessary to keep them fresh in the minds of all and also to provide for necessary changes or additions. The *Faculty Handbook* should include these aims.

Plan of Organization

Allocations of responsibility for the administrative and supervisory functions of the school should be reassessed regularly in terms of improving the effectiveness of the school's organization. In large high schools, these

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responsibilities should be defined as completely as possible and clarified for all staff members. An organization chart indicating positions of line authority is desirable for all the staff, also to help clarify the distribution of responsibilities.

Importance of Good Communications

Direct lines of communication should be provided wherever possible, for clear concise communications are vital in a large high school. This may be stressed particularly in the before-school conferences which the administrator should have with each new faculty member. Regular meetings of the principal's advisory council (formed in a variety of ways), of the department chairmen of the faculty, of members of subject departments, and of faculty committees are extremely important here. Opportunities for the staff to discuss new or changed procedures will usually promote understandings, whereas bulletins to the staff often tend to be misunderstood or not read carefully. It is probably best to keep administrative bulletins at a minimum and oral communications at a maximum. One method which has been very valuable at Elmont Memorial High School has been to provide a half hour at the beginning and also at the end of each day for a brief conference with teachers. Generally these conferences are not made by appointment. During these periods, all administrators are available for brief conferences with faculty members. These conferences keep administrators and teachers in close touch with one another; excellent opportunities are provided here for the promotion of good rapport and understanding. The continuous improvement of instruction is a major aim of the district and of the school itself, and these informal conversations help to promote this goal in a friendly and relaxed manner.

Promotion of Teamwork

A school's progress is definitely promoted by group teamwork. Also, the purposes of supervision should be fully understood by all staff members. In schools where supervision is considered to be a means of improving instruction and not merely as a means of rating teachers, there is a much greater chance that teachers will enlist the assistance of supervisors to help them make their teaching more meaningful and valuable.

In this Long Island Sewanhaka Central High School District #2, classroom visitation report sheets to be used for each visit were worked out by a district committee of administrators and teachers from the six high schools in the district. A copy is given to the teacher, a copy is sent to the district coordinator for that subject area, and one copy is kept in the teacher's file within the school. Teachers are encouraged to have a follow-up conference after each visit. At Elmont Memorial invitational supervisory visits are stressed, and considerable progress is being made in this direction. Teachers invite administrators and department representatives to observe certain teaching techniques or lessons taught by visitors or by

other teachers within the school. Whenever a visit is made without invitation, the teacher is asked if a visit at that time is convenient for him or if he would prefer a different time. Many visits are arranged in advance by the supervisors and the teacher. District subject coordinators also make periodic visits, use the regular district visitation report, and confer with teachers, department representatives, and administrators as needed.

Recently, as a result of a suggestion made at an advisory council meeting, four demonstration classes were presented after school, and the faculty visited these classes to see these outstanding teachers in action. In two faculty meeting periods this year, groups of about ten teachers each met together, chose their own chairman and recorder, and discussed mutual problems and teaching techniques used in working with groups of pupils whom all these teachers had in their classes. The reports were reviewed for clues on improving instruction and individual scheduling. Other ideas have been advanced by faculty members to make horizontal and vertical subject area group discussions more helpful to everyone. The most successful faculty meeting last year was organized by the school's reading teacher, the English area representative, and the principal in an attempt to discuss and understand more completely the importance of communications skills in all subject areas. Each discussion group included teachers of a given area of study and one English teacher. The presentation of a summary of the recommended areas of communications skills to be stressed was a very interesting and valuable experience for all staff members. Having a district coordinator serve as a consultant and observer was also very helpful.

Accenting Faculty Growth and Understanding

To be a successful leader one must have executive ability as well as the ability to develop friendly and cooperative relationships with others. The area of human relations has become extremely important in all aspects of school endeavor. Administrators and supervisors should be encouraged to note outstanding teacher practices, have the teachers write out the details of these practices, and have these practices circulated among the faculty. Notes of commendation should be sent to teachers for outstanding classroom school leadership, and copies of these notes should be kept in their office folder. Regular meetings of the school's administrative and supervisory staff should be conducted so that specific problems or points of progress may be noted by all concerned. Again, teamwork which involves clearcut understandings is most important. The school's public relations program should be used advantageously to help supplement this accent on the positive. Having a school personality of the week (faculty, clerical, or custodial) feature weekly in the local newspapers is another positive device in this area. Other means of promoting faculty growth and understanding include the distribution of vital educational articles or periodicals, the establishment of a sound faculty library, and the use of a faculty handbook which is reorganized yearly.

In conclusion, it is probably true in most high schools that worth-while improvements in the organization of the school need to be tempered with flexibility and patience. At all times, too, there is the serious need to remember that all faculty members are on a single educational team which is striving to improve the educational program and the progress of each child in that school and in our democratic society.

Summary of the presentation made by CLARENCE W. JOHNSON

TO MAINTAIN effective leadership in a high school of any size, it is imperative that all members of the staff be fully cognizant of their responsibilities for implementing the philosophy of education that has been developed for the school by the entire staff. The larger the high school, the greater the need for sound methods of communication. A *Teachers' Manual*, prepared by teachers and administrators, which describes the functions of staff members and lists the rules and regulations of the school, is essential. Newsletters and similar types of publications, issued weekly or monthly by the principal, special committees, departments, and the Teachers' Association, are also important in keeping the faculty informed of the activities of the school. Regularly scheduled and carefully planned meetings of committees, departments, advisory groups, and the entire faculty are an integral part of any plan to organize and coordinate the administrative and supervisory staff.

Downers Grove High School, with an enrollment of 2100 students and a professional staff of 100 members uses an advisory council in planning and developing its program. Through the years many different methods have been used to select the members of the council. At the present time this group includes department heads, deans, the guidance director, the visiting counselor, the librarian, and the principal. The superintendent of schools and his assistants in charge of curriculum, personnel, and business affairs also meet with this group as need for such meetings arise. Some of the problems and projects the council concerns itself with are related to the curriculum, teacher and pupil welfare, extracurricular activities, and the general administration of the school.

The teachers' association of this school has advisory and salary committees that meet monthly with the superintendent to discuss problems of interest to their groups that are affected by board policies. Efforts are made at these meetings to deal only with those matters which need not be considered first by the advisory council and the principal. A committee appointed by the association is presently attempting to work out a plan for evaluating the work of each teacher.

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The role of department heads in this school involves them in such responsibilities as assisting in the selection of teachers; determining teacher load; recommending courses and textbooks; conducting department meetings and workshops; and providing leadership for experimentation within the department. In large departments, additional time has been allotted to heads for the observation of classroom activities.

Downers Grove High School considers its full-time director of guidance and his staff as key personnel in maintaining a wholesome working relationship between the teachers and the students. Members of this department are not required to handle major discipline problems. All counselors are expected to teach at least one regular subject each day. The feeling is that this classroom contact with students helps counselors to understand better the problems that face the teachers. This department handles the testing program, which has become a large enterprise. To assist with his work, there is an assistant guidance director in charge of statistical studies.

The assistant principal and dean of girls, and our dean of boys handle all discipline problems. They make an effort to secure written reports from the teachers who refer students to them. The deans, in turn, make an effort to report in writing to the teachers the action they have taken on all cases. The morale of a teaching staff will usually be low if there is no adequate means of communication between all parties involved in discipline problems. A few of the other duties of the deans include serving as advisers to the school council; directing the Foreign Exchange Student program; organizing and directing the extracurricular program; and maintaining a calendar on all activities sponsored in the school.

In this brief resume of how one high school functions, it has not been possible to cover all aspects of the subject. Some of the questions that will be considered in my oral presentation are as follows: What are some of the weaknesses and strengths of the various mediums of communication? What authority should be granted to administrative assistants, department heads, and supervisors? What are the procedures a principal should follow when it is necessary for him, on rare occasions, to overrule the action of another group? When there is a superintendent of schools, what should be the line of authority that he should follow in his relationships with members of the high-school staff? When there is a curriculum director for both the elementary and secondary school, what are the best ways of utilizing his services for the improvement of instruction? To what extent should department heads make classroom visitations for the purpose of supervision? Will department heads lose the confidence of members of their staff if they are required to rate the members of their department? What responsibilities are to be delegated to the director of guidance and his staff in determining pupil load, making changes in daily schedules of pupils, referring pupils to other agencies for special help, and in handling minor discipline problems? How much authority

needs to be delegated to the director of guidance so he can carry out his responsibilities? How does the visiting counselor work directly with the counseling department and indirectly with the other staff members? How should committees organized by the teachers' association be integrated with other groups that are a part of the educational program?

WHAT ARE SOME GOOD PRACTICES IN HANDLING STUDENT DISCIPLINE?

CHAIRMAN: *John Conrad*, Principal, High School, Chelmsford, Massachusetts

DISCUSSANTS:

Gerald W. Meyer, Principal, High School, Fremont, Nebraska

Pat Woosley, Principal, Highland Park Junior High School, Dallas, Texas

Summary of the presentation made by **GEORGE K. DRAKE**

THE word *discipline* as it was derived from early Christian literature meant the method Christ used in teaching and leading his disciples. The procedure used in that setting was for the leader to demonstrate the desirable social concepts so clearly that the disciples understood, became convinced, and patterned their behavior after the leader's example.

The highest type of discipline today follows this same concept. The first requirement is the activity of *leadership* in teaching insight and understanding of the pattern of behavior desired. The second requirement is the activity of *followership* where there is acceptance and development of concepts of self-control and self-restraint in accord with the established goal.

The adjustment of youth to the accepted controls and authority of our time is currently a matter of major consequence and controversy. The home, the school, and civil authorities are all seeking the most effective means of controlling and guiding the youth under their jurisdiction. Youth itself in many instances is concerned with finding better ways of working with those authority figures with whom they interact.

After years of endorsement of progressive or permissive techniques of guidance, the picture has changed and we find parents and teachers alike attempting to establish a firmer policy of discipline. Except for the agreement that there is need for greater control, there is no uniform

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opinion regarding the discipline techniques which may be considered to be most effective in guiding our youth to a happier and more secure adulthood.

A brief review of some of the current methods being employed seems appropriate. It should always be remembered, however, that what works for one may not work for all. The success of any program is dependent upon the personalities of those who apply it.

The Approach to Discipline

Adequate discipline requires definite steps in dealing with the problem student. These steps should start from the point of error, and state the position of the school, penalties, and where the student is headed if the action is repeated. To maintain good public relations and arrive at the most satisfactory goal require proper ground work.

Parent Conferencing

The solution of critical problems of discipline eventually must involve the parent. It appears logical that the most practical method is to keep parents informed all along the way as problems develop. When issues affecting the educational future of the student require decision, all the preparation has gone before and animosities cannot develop since the solution is a combined decision of the student, the parent, and the school.

Case Conferencing

Frequently the assistance of agencies in the community will throw additional light on problems, and they may be of great help in providing services not available through the school as well as valuable aid in reaching decisions for future action. Most case conferences involve the probation department, welfare agencies, the juvenile police bureau, the school deans, and the school psychology and counseling department.

Pre-Dropout Classes

Since the research shows a high correlation between discipline problems—grades and dropout—some schools have been carrying on successful programs of pre-dropout classes for those who seem destined for school failure. The most successful classes of this type provide three hours of school and three hours of on-the-job supervision by the school. This is a modified work experience program designed to keep problem youngsters in active school attendance and operates from a guidance approach.

Dean's List (in reverse)

One interesting experiment reveals a school which publishes to teachers each week a *Dean's List* of all problem pupils on whom they are requested to keep anecdotal information which is forwarded to the deans who use it in regularly scheduled conferences with the students involved. This constant awareness of being under surveillance keeps many pre-delinquents on the right path and gives the dean a background for guidance rather than discipline.

Suspensions

The withholding of students from attending classes should be near the end in the continuum of penalties for the solution of a particular problem. When suspension seems desirable, if possible, it should be without loss of school time. This type of suspension involves sending the pupil home at the end of the day with permission to return only when accompanied by his parent. Under these circumstances the loss of time is the prerogative of the parent. Conference time may be scheduled any time up to 5:30 P.M. or as early as 7:30 A.M., and thus failure to readmit the student becomes a parent responsibility.

Discipline is inevitable. The most effective type, and perhaps the only type which secures lasting results, is the self-discipline, self-control which comes as a desire to do right, as an effort to protect the reputation of the school or the class, as the will to demonstrate maturity and respect for those charged with maintaining control. The disciplinary figure *can be* respected and liked if he is consistent, fair, available, friendly, has a good sense of humor, likes young people, is willing to go more than half the way, prepares his problem student for making decisions, and has a keen insight (almost a sixth sense) for being at the right place at the right time with accurate information for the prevention of trouble.

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN F. WEINHOFF

AS A point of departure in the discussion of "discipline" in the schools, it would seem best first to give some thought to what the word really means. Webster tells us that it stems originally from the Latin word meaning to train. The word disciple in our ordinary connotation is a person in the process of being trained. The first definition then of discipline is training. Only in a corollary sense does the word connote punishment. If we accept the primary definition of the word, then the act of discipline and our procedure in carrying it out becomes a teaching situation in the broadest sense of the term. It is within this frame of reference that the following remarks are made.

Basically, the process of education is one of emancipation. Only when self-control, or control from within, has been mastered is the human being emancipated from outside influences, and hence really on his own. If that is true, then it follows that the anti-social or even social behavior of the pupil must be thought of, and dealt with, as a part of the education process. The disciplinary act then becomes a matter of training rather than just the meting out of punishment.

John F. Weinhoff is Principal of the Shorewood High School, Shorewood, Wisconsin.

The transgressor becomes more important in the problem than the transgression. The cause of the act becomes more important than the act itself. Even under exceedingly trying circumstances, the disciplinarian cannot lose sight of the fact that it is his job basically to bring about a change of attitude with its consequent modification of behavior. Good discipline practice thus requires much time in counseling with both pupil and parents. It further requires the kind of staff which commands the respect of the student because, among other things, its members have a deep respect for the dignity of young people, and regard for their welfare.

Self-discipline grows out of a realization of the purpose and value in human relations of certain behavior patterns. A school with good discipline practices, therefore, sees to it that its students recognize the reasonableness of its controls. This means that there must be good communication between pupils and staff, from the individual teacher on up through the principal of the school.

Good practice likewise calls for cooperative effort on the part of students and staff in the establishment of controls. In very many schools the student council has been used effectively in just this area. Sometimes we adults forget that young people, like their elders, respond better when they are a part of the planning than if they are not. Where standards are set by the school, it is imperative that those standards be made perfectly clear to the student body.

Following is an example in a school which had just introduced study halls into its school day. A copy of this note was given each student when he came to his study hall for the first time.

ALL STUDENTS:

I am sure you will want to know just what is to be expected of students in such situations. In order that there may be no question in your mind as to study hall procedure, this note is being given to you. Study halls, as they have been planned here, can be a real opportunity for all of you, not only to get your work done, but also to learn and practice the art of independent study—something that will be an asset to you always.

1. Come with study material, (*and a plan of study*) to be used for the entire period.
2. Be in your assigned seat ready to work when the bell rings.
3. *Start when the bell rings.*
4. Do your own work independently, without conferences with others. When you work by yourself, you not only allow others to work independently, but you also advance your own personal growth and maturity.
5. Remain quietly in your seats until the dismissal bell rings.

Please Remember that the teacher in charge has his, or her, own work to do, as you do. You will be expected not to impose on his, or her, time and attention unnecessarily.

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Good practice in discipline must always involve a positive approach. The pupil must see the justice of the action taken. He must understand

that there is nothing "personal" involved on the part of the disciplinarian. It might be said, parenthetically, that this idea is sometimes extremely difficult to convey. The wise disciplinarian can offset this feeling of personal animus if he will shortly after seek out something the disciplined pupil has done which is worthy of praise and commend him for it.

Some disciplinarians find it profitable to have a pupil write up the incident with all of its implications and place it in his folder. This has merit in concentrating the pupil's attention on his behavior, but it also makes him feel that he has been forced to testify against himself and to make this testimony a permanent thing.

Wise disciplinarians inform the pupil that he will have an opportunity to remove that testimony from his folder. This is done by allowing the pupil at some later date, perhaps six months or so, to bring evidence from his teachers or others that there has been a real change in his behavior. Upon presentation of such evidence, the original testimony will be taken from his folder and destroyed. Resentment is likely to be replaced by resolve for better behavior and the process of self-rehabilitation encouraged.

The very period of adolescence embodies the process of growing up. In that process, every pupil needs to, and does, assert his rights to freedom. How much shall we give him?

It seems that is our job—to give him as much as he had demonstrated his ability to handle. It is further our job to help him, even sometimes through discipline, to increase this power to handle situations. The end result we hope would be an emancipated human being who was master of himself.

WHAT IS THE CASE FOR AND AGAINST SELECTIVE ACCELERATION OF QUALIFIED STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *Paul H. Farris*, Principal, Pentucket Regional Junior-Senior High School, West Newbury, Massachusetts

DISCUSSANTS:

James B. Dietz, Principal, Jenner-Boswell-Jennerstown Joint High School, Boswell, Pennsylvania

O. C. West, Principal, Hinsdale Township High School, Hinsdale, Illinois

Summary of the presentation made by CARL CHERKIS

THE case for selective acceleration is based on a simple fact; namely, that children are as different inside as they are outside. They cannot be packaged in bulk, neatly wrapped, tied with a red ribbon, and graduated in mass after having been exposed to equal doses of identical skills and knowledges.

It is a misconception to think of selective acceleration as applicable only to academically advanced pupils. It is equally applicable to pupils with special talents whether those talents are along lines of industrial arts, language arts, or fine arts. If we accept this premise, we are on firmer ground in speaking of homogeneous grouping than we are when we think of homogeneity along such artificial lines as reading levels or intelligent quotients. Selective acceleration provides for groupings based on genuine community of interest and on specific rather than vague ability levels.

Dr. Conant in his study of the American high school has advocated a three-track system with opportunities to switch from track to track as in a freight yard. Selective acceleration provides for as many tracks as there are passengers on the educational line. Under this system, it is theoretically possible that no two pupils in a school are following identical educational routes.

Some school systems (New York City, for example) try to meet the problem of the bright pupil in the junior high school by putting him on an express train and racing him through the junior high school in two years. Acceleration replaces enrichment. How much better off these pupils would be if they had the opportunity over the full three years to gain insights and richness of vision; and to develop creative abilities by living through courses set up as major activities in the regular curriculum as orchestral classes, art, dramatics, science, advanced (for junior high school)

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mathematics, journalism, creative writing, vocal music, dance, American literature, secretarial studies, conversational foreign language, and the like. By the same token, special remedial or "help" classes in mathematics, reading techniques, and the like could be organized for those who have fallen behind and recognize the need for assistance. It is even possible under such a programming system that a pupil might be taking simultaneously creative writing and remedial mathematics.

Another advantage of selective acceleration is teacher stimulation. The supervisor is in a position to select his most capable and interested teachers for special courses. The teachers of these courses are enthusiastic because they are lifted out of the standard routine (if any teaching can possibly be called routine). The fact that pupils have indicated a preference for the course, that their parents have agreed to this selective acceleration, that their teachers recommend them for such courses and that their guidance counselors agree that the course is the proper one for them, rules out to a large extent the problem of "discipline" in these courses. On the other hand, unless the teacher provides the pupils with a course of genuine merit or if his methods are poor, there will be so little interest in the course that it will disappear from the curriculum.

Attractive as is the case for selective acceleration, it contains serious drawbacks. It is administratively difficult. Programming is complicated and demands a high degree of parallel course structure so that pupils who are separated for mathematics, for example, can be brought together for science and foreign language. This type of programming is almost impossible in the small school. In addition, it tends to create a disorderly school situation with pupils scattering after each class rather than moving as a block.

While classes can be paralleled on a promotion basis, what happens in the small school when, for example, an eighth-year pupil completes ninth-year social studies and no other courses are available? What does he do in the ninth year? Where it is impossible for a class officer to carry a section book with him, cutting is easier for those who are so minded.

It is difficult to establish a genuine sense of class unity on which real school spirit is based if an official class breaks into several subject classes with a kaleidoscopic student pattern during the day. Class and school spirit are a tangible basis on which to build a true feeling of community and national pride.

Since not all teachers are capable of teaching special classes, many teachers will be denied that leavening of classroom brightness which results from the removal of the most capable youngsters from regular classes. There is danger of developing a teaching aristocracy within a school; or, what is even worse, accelerated classes may be assigned on a seniority basis regardless of pupil welfare, for the purpose of maintaining teacher morale.

Because no students will be placed in these classes against their will, it is possible that they may seek or avoid these classes not on the basis of educational value but for extraneous reasons such as teacher popularity, having friends in the class, or for pure snob appeal.

Perhaps the most serious defect of selective acceleration at the junior high-school level is that it is too radical a departure from the elementary-school system where the whole class remains, for the most part, with one teacher in one room. The junior high school is a transitional school. It removes the pupils from the fixed classroom and the single teacher but gives them the emotional strength which comes from traveling with a fixed group. Possibly, the way to meet this defect would be to have complete block programming at the seventh-year level, partial selective acceleration at the eighth-year level, and more complete selective acceleration at the ninth-year level, which traditionally is regarded as the first year of senior high school in most school systems.

Summary of the presentation made by A. D. LUKE

IN THE early history of education in America, we find that generally those individuals who had the intelligence and finances went on to school after grammar school. This was, in a sense, acceleration of qualified students. Then American education grew, to take in not just the few, but the large percentage of the population. The law in most areas requires that a student remain in school until the age of 16, but the unwritten social law of our country requires that the student finish high school.

There has been a deep concern for one another's democratic equality during the last two decades. While we have been educating larger and larger percentages as well as numbers, there has been the desire to keep all students together. They were allowed to choose the classes they wanted to take within the scope of the system, but weren't allowed to be separated within this framework. It was felt that grouping would be undemocratic. Some schools used some type of grouping though, during this period. Some advocated its success, while others doubted its worth or contended it was harmful.

Then came Sputnik and its tremendous impact on American society. Since most schools had heterogeneous groupings, it was contended that perhaps we weren't pushing our bright pupils enough. The public demanded that some action be taken. Many looked to European schools as to what their programs were. Thus, the question has arisen: Should we place qualified students in accelerated classes? What then, do we mean by the term qualified students? Those who are for acceleration of qualified

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students attempt to define it with tests of all kinds, observations, *etc.* Those who are against acceleration of qualified students may state that it cannot be adequately defined; that each individual is so complex that in one situation he may be qualified and in another he may not; that within one specific course he will have areas of relatively easy going and areas of complications.

Let us examine this a little more closely. The case for accelerated programs: Many high schools have in action or are in the process of developing some type of program that accelerates pupils by subject. They feel that this gives the brighter pupil, the one with the ability to go ahead, an opportunity to go far beyond the areas of attainment under the heterogeneous grouping. The state of Montana has a cooperative program prepared by the high schools and colleges whereby the accelerated pupils who have taken advance courses in high school need not take them over again when entering college. For example: Billings Senior High School, Billings, Montana, offers college algebra and trigonometry to their twelfth-grade students as well as accelerated courses in English and science. Mountain Home High School, Mountain Home, Idaho, offers a college premedical course in physiology two days a week, beginning an hour before regular school starts, followed with laboratory instruction during regular school hours, as well as other accelerated courses. These are only two cases from the many schools that are doing some type of accelerated work. These people believe that their students are going far beyond the capabilities of those students being taught in a heterogeneous group; that they learn more leadership; are stimulated to achieve at higher levels; are more nearly working to their capacities, and will go on to achieve more in life because of these types of programs.

Those for acceleration by grouping will state that it is impossible to conduct a heterogeneous class in a manner that will stimulate and give the bright student what he needs, while at the same time be able to reach the level of ability and continue to stimulate learning within the low achievers. Those for grouping according to ability also state that, socially, they study with the group with which they associate anyway. The bright pupils associate with one another whether they are grouped or not. They choose their friends relatively from the same intelligence-socio-economic level. Thus they state that there is really little, if any, difference in their grouping from the groups that already exist naturally. We already accept the groupings for subjects such as band, chorus, athletics, and art. Why not for mathematics, science, English, and others?

Those who are against acceleration by subject give several reasons; among those are some mentioned at last year's convention by Cyril W. Woolcock in his report on providing for the academically talented. Some which he called prejudices were: it is undemocratic; it breeds intellectual snobbery; it develops poor social relations. The case against acceleration follows also that the students learn from interaction with each other; that the so-called bright students have much to learn from the slower

students in the way of tolerance, values, and the ability to get along; that, with all of our scientific advancements, the students will do poorly in society unless they can do better in the field of human relations. We are subject matter crazy these days. The human body is so complex that, when we put individuals into isolated channels of learning, we may be doing the individual more harm than good. An example of the complexity of choosing students for accelerated classes was cited in *Newsweek* concerning the selection of admissions to a school in New Hampshire. After the admissions committee had gone over all of the available data concerning one particular applicant, it was decided not to admit him. This case turned out to be the record of Sir Winston Churchill. It had been submitted under another name in order to ascertain what the admissions committee would do with the records of a highly successful man. There are more conclusive data available today than in Churchill's school days, but in the case against, is it conclusive enough? Aren't we in danger of stigmatizing some potential who would be a leader tomorrow by failing to accelerate him, if that were the case? What should we do with the brilliant student who has poor work habits? What should we do with the brilliant student who has little desire to learn? How do we grade in the accelerated student classes?

In the cases both for and against, there are still many questions left unanswered. I have merely stated opinions in this presentation with the hope that sufficient questions have been raised to prompt much needed research in this area.

HOW CAN FACULTY MEETINGS STIMULATE PROFESSIONAL GROWTH?

CHAIRMAN: *Charles C. Vines*, Principal, High School, Hueytown, Alabama

DISCUSSANTS:

Cary M. Pace, Jr., Principal, Mohawk Junior High School, Columbus, Ohio

Ernest E. Wellenbrock, Principal, Daniel Webster Junior High School, Stockton, California

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD H. METCALF

FACULTY meetings continue to provide an excellent avenue for in-service teacher education. Although it is difficult to generalize because of variations in size of faculties, types of communities, complexities of school organizations, and other factors, faculty meetings continue to provide

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opportunity for personal relationships among administrators and teaching personnel not provided for in any other way. Power amplifier systems, bulletins, and bulletin boards have decreased the necessity for meetings held to discuss school routines and administrative detail, but have not supplied a means for faculty growth.

It must be admitted that there are road blocks to effectiveness even of well-planned meetings. It seems that no time of the school day is generally acceptable for calling the teaching group together. Late afternoon meetings, traditionally most popular, if such meetings can be so termed, come when energy supply is at low ebb and the mind is not alert to new ideas. Meetings called before school in the morning catch teachers when they are ready to initiate plans for the day. They are made nervous if students are in classrooms or at doors waiting to enter. Most meetings held before school are hurried and ineffective except for very brief and very important confidential announcements. Many schools now do not have an open noon hour and teachers' time is so tightly planned that meetings cannot be scheduled during the day. Even when meetings are set before or after school, full attendance is seldom achieved because of involvement of staff members in athletics, extracurriculum activities, and personal or home responsibilities. Again, and in spite of objectionable features, the afternoon after-school meeting is probably most common and has enough redeeming features to warrant its continued use.

Most school districts continue to include faculty meetings as a means to better understanding of school philosophy, of teacher responsibility, and of trends in educational thought. The public schools of the United States are going through a period of re-evaluation and change; any one who has attended school may consider himself an expert and find an audience. Faculties must come to grips with those problems which have wide social implications as well as to those indigenous to particular situations. Cooperative planning is a must in a modern school system. Throughout the country and particularly in metropolitan areas, full days are set aside for professional study. These may come previous to the school year in the fall, between semesters, or at the end of or during the school year. In addition, many county institute meetings are democratically planned by teachers and administrative personnel with emphasis on improving instruction.

At Bloom Township High School and Community College, we continue to hold after school meetings when in the opinion of the administration and/or faculty they are needed. In addition, the board of education has recognized the need and has established a policy of closing school at 2:00 P.M. instead of at 3:05 P.M. on one Monday afternoon in each of the six grading periods for purposes of in-service education. Usually the first hour is spent in a general meeting with a discussion leader, a resource speaker, or panel from outside or from the staff. This is followed by an informal get-together in the cafeteria for refreshments, after which

teachers work as individuals or in departmental groups for another hour. On occasion, all of the time is devoted to individual or departmental planning.

Also, at Bloom it is the custom of the Board of Education to meet with departments. The department chairman prepares a dittoed statement on subjects offered, instructional procedures, and other aspects of departmental effort. The dittoed statement after it is reviewed by the chairman becomes the basis for further discussion. Members of the school board believe that such meetings give them a basis for contributing wisely in the formulation of school board policy.

In conclusion, my experience as administrator of a large suburban high school leads me to support strongly the basic work of faculty meetings as a means of improving the instruction in the school.

Summary of the presentation made by W. E. PATE

FACULTY meetings can stimulate professional growth by providing an atmosphere of collective purpose and unity to the over-all program within the school. They can provide opportunities for an exchange of ideas as well as give fresh viewpoints on old as well as current problems.

There are at least three distinct types of faculty meeting that are needed to have a well-balanced program within the school. These are: (1) meeting of all faculty members for study and discussion of a problem or problems that are of concern to all members; (2) staff meetings where just the members of the science, social studies, English, mathematics, *etc.* departments discuss problems peculiar to their department, and (3) administrative type meetings where school policies, routine announcements, *etc.* are the topics.

It goes without saying that, for the individual faculty member and for the faculty as a whole to grow professionally, they must participate in the planning and production of a faculty study. For the meetings of the entire faculty, it is good procedure to have the group elect a steering committee to select the problem for study for this particular year and to have committees of program, resources, social, *etc.* to insure as much participation as possible. Some problems appropriate for such studies are: (1) interpretation and use of standardized tests; (2) discipline; (3) library usage; (4) spelling; (5) curriculum; (6) schedule; (7) visual aids; (8) guidance, *etc.* Perhaps the best procedure would be to study one problem a year and to have the faculty as panelists or individuals bring discussion on various aspects at different times. The last meeting of the year should be an evaluation and summary report by faculty members. These might be called General Professional Faculty Meetings.

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The second type of faculty meeting is called *staff meetings*. These are for the purpose of having the groups with common problems of instruction to meet regularly to exchange ideas, plan syllabus, course content, etc. If the school doesn't have staff heads, so appointed by the board, a chairman should be elected by the group. This chairman will be responsible for directing the staff program for the year with the help and suggestions from the members. For instance, an English staff might determine minimum requirements per grade level. Mathematics and science staffs certainly have no trouble these days finding problems to have much needed and interesting staff studies. Just keeping up with the literature in the field today is a major problem and good utilization of the faculty member in such a study helps develop professional growth.

The third kind of faculty meeting suggested is the purely administrative kind in which the principal, assistant principals, guidance director, etc. explain the routine procedure of the school operation, school and school board policies, etc. These meetings should be as long and as short as is necessary for the purpose. Administrative matters and routine announcements should not take up the time and divert the thinking of teachers in the general professional or staff meetings. It is necessary to have one or two lengthy administrative meetings at the beginning of, or before, the school year so that all teachers will clearly understand school policies and procedures. This knowledge gives them a sense of security within the framework of the school organization and they know where to turn for answers or help in the future. After the first couple of such meetings, the subsequent ones need be only short ones for announcement purposes. It might be well to underscore the point that administrative matters should not interfere with the other two kinds of faculty meetings.

Naturally, the principal is the guiding light, or the person behind the successful programming of all planned efforts for professional growth within a faculty group. During the summer months when he is planning the details of the next year's school program, he can, and perhaps should, frame in the times element on his school calendar for the staff and general professional faculty meetings. This can be accomplished better to avoid conflicts in meeting dates, etc. He might even determine how frequently certain groups should meet. This, along with the other mimeographed material handed the faculty at the beginning of school, could then be used as a guide for the development of faculty studies.

Faculty meetings should be frequent enough to achieve the desired purpose. The teachers' time is important and care should be taken to avoid unnecessarily long and aimless meetings that are detrimental to the idea of faculty meetings. It is necessary that the school have a continuous flow of good professional material such as current periodicals and new books to be available constantly for casual reading or for background material for use in participating in special studies.

It might be added in closing that the professional attitude on the part of the principal and his assistants toward faculty meetings determines largely how well the faculty grows professionally in such meetings. The principal will have to have an abundance of ideas for study. He will have to study and read extensively and will have to give the quality of leadership that promotes such professional growth as is desirable.

WHAT CRITICAL PROBLEMS FACE THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPAL?

CHAIRMAN: *Otto F. Huettner*, Principal, Mary D. Bradford Junior High School, Kenosha, Wisconsin

DISCUSSANTS:

George W. R. Kirkpatrick, Principal, Junior High School, Bala-Cynwyd, Pennsylvania

Calvin T. Smith, Principal, Monroney Junior High School, Midwest City, Oklahoma

Summary of the presentation made by CHRISTINE YOUNG

THE emphasis on the reconstruction of our high schools has brought many concerns to the junior high-school principal. Besides the changes within the curriculum of the schools themselves, the principal is faced with greater responsibilities in other areas. The two areas which I think represent the greatest concern are: (1) the problem of articulation, and (2) the selection and training of teachers for the junior high school.

THE PROBLEM OF ARTICULATION

If the comprehensive high school, as presented by Dr. Conant, brings about the maximum diversification and individualization of instruction, the junior high school must develop an extensive articulation program to help its students move into the high school and continue in their uninterrupted pattern of learning. Since this individualization of instruction is started in the junior high school with diversified programs provided for the gifted and talented boys and girls and remedial programs for the retarded, the junior high-school principal is confronted also with the need of developing a better articulation program with the elementary school. Thus he finds himself in a strategic position, with the responsibility of providing a continuity of the learning experience from the self-contained

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classroom of the elementary school to the ever more greatly diversified program of the comprehensive high school. The junior high-school principal is faced with the need for the development of a program of articulation in two directions.

Although an effective plan must be developed by the entire school system, the junior high-school principal is in a position to spearhead the program. It must begin with a definitely formulated statement of educational goals and basic educational philosophy for the entire program of elementary and secondary education. All levels must understand one another. This understanding encompasses records, curriculum, and emotional and social adjustments. All members of the staff are involved, but the principal must provide the leadership, with the guidance counselors assuming the greatest responsibility for the program. Although the program becomes more complicated in a large school system, the elements are the same for all systems.

There must be a close working relationship not only between the principal and the staff of the junior high school, but also between the junior high school and the elementary schools which feed into it. They must agree on what information is desired on the guidance record and why. The elementary principal must be the liaison between the junior high-school personnel going into the school and the elementary teachers of his school. If the junior high-school counselor is welcomed by the elementary teachers, much can be done to bring about the smooth transition that is desired.

The changes that have been taking place in our high schools have intensified greatly the problem of the transition from the junior high school to the senior high school. For each student there must be provided continuous development to the level of performance and maturity commensurate with his potentialities. This is started in the elementary school, but as the emphasis changes from the common learnings to more and more individualization of education, the problem becomes more difficult.

The junior high-school principal, through his guidance organization, must study each student as an individual. What are his aspirations and capabilities? What information about the pupil is needed? County and state testing programs have been developing so that there is available more common knowledge about each student. Test scores are used extensively for the placement of pupils in the accelerated and honors programs that were mentioned earlier.

To provide for the continuity of learning that is desirable for all pupils, each teacher must study the course of study for his subject in all grades. In all the subject areas the junior high-school teacher must understand what will be expected of his students on the next level. This can be accomplished by the inter-visitation of teachers, department heads, and curriculum assistants. Regular county or system-wide meetings of teachers

in each subject area can be held. Curriculum-planning committees can be formed to develop common understandings and objectives.

The differentiated program of the high schools has required the junior high-school principal to get in closer touch with the parents of the students. More and more printed information is being prepared to go home with the pupils to aid them in subject selection. Parents are coming into the schools more often for individual conferences with guidance personnel. Group meetings of parents and students are being held to acquaint them with the many opportunities.

Any attempts to help boys and girls make satisfactory adjustments as they move from one school level to another have better results if there have been developed certain basic ideas in the beginning. These basic ideas underlie the suggestions which have been made. They are: (a) maintaining a security balance from the old and familiar to the new and strange; (b) developing continuity for the pupil as an individual and continuity for the whole group of pupils; and (c) improving human relations in the school through appropriate administration procedures.¹

SELECTION AND TRAINING OF TEACHERS

Although the junior high schools were established about fifty years ago, very little has been done to train teachers for this level of education. Because of this lack in courses of training for junior high-school teachers, we have filled our classrooms with elementary teachers with good basic education, but without specialization in a subject area, or with teachers trained for the senior high schools without an understanding of the growth and development of the pre-adolescent. Hence, in order to improve our schools, we must rely upon in-service training. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals is to be commended for its publication of lists of summer school courses relating to the junior high schools. The study of in-service training for junior high-school teachers as reported by Ross J. Wellnick² suggests many available techniques. A plan of self-study and evaluation of junior high schools in Dade County, Florida, seems to have possibilities for the in-service training of a junior high-school staff. The junior high-school principals of the county during a practicum developed an instrument for the evaluation of the total school program. Each year the entire staff of four of five schools uses this as a basis for self-study. University credit is optional, with a member of the local university staff directing the study with the cooperation of the county director of junior high schools. Some states are working out plans for the special certification of junior high-school teachers. Certainly the effectiveness of our program depends largely upon the wise and careful selection of teachers.

¹ Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, *A Look at Continuity in the School Program*. Yearbook (Washington 6, D.C.: The Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1958). P. 176.

² Ross J. Wellnick. "The In-Service Training of the Junior High-School Teacher." *THE BULLETIN*, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 43:13-17, December 1959.

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH O. LORETAN

I HAVE been asked to discuss two problems: (1) How must the function of the junior high school be changed due to the world changes in government, economics, and social living? (2) How can we plan (in the junior high schools) better to meet the needs of superior students—through a program of vertical acceleration or of horizontal enrichment?

In discussing the first question I want to say at the outset that I am not one of the alarmists who, after the advent of the first Russian satellite and the new nationalism in Asia and Africa, were convinced that the American system of education was at fault; and that unless we made drastic changes in what we taught and how we taught it, we were bound straight for political and industrial perdition. On the contrary, I have always had and still have an abiding faith in the American way of looking at life and preparing for life and in our basic system of education, a system that has tried to meet the needs of free men in a free society, that has made our country strong and prosperous, and has given us the leadership of the free world.

Also, I am one of those who believe that while any sound program of education must be responsive to the needs and demands of a changing world it must nevertheless be based on enduring human values, and that as educators we must be on guard against exchanging those values for others that may appear pressing at a particular time, but that are in reality only transitory and ephemeral. In other words, because Russia's Sputniks and Luniks or the foreign language program for the elite of European schools are currently superior to ours, it is unwise to conclude, I maintain, that our educational thinking and planning have been to blame and that we must *ipso facto* change our courses of study and methods of teaching.

However, there is a wide difference between viewing with alarm and viewing with complacency. And while it is true that we have not had and do not need an educational revolution because of Sputnik, the advent of the first Russian satellite, indicating as it did Russian scientific and technological and possibly military superiority in space, did shock all Americans; and a search for causes inevitably involved a re-examination and a re-evaluation of American education. This heart searching has occurred before; there have been periodic changes in our educational thinking and in our educational structure. But there has been an urgency in the current re-evaluation that was lacking in the past and this urgency has quickly crystallized into two basic questions: (1) Were we teaching the right things? and (2) Were we holding our students to sufficiently high standards of effort and achievement? The answers to these questions came quickly, perhaps too quickly: (1) We were not emphasizing science and

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mathematics sufficiently; (2) We were not pressing our students hard enough for work and effort worthy of their potentialities.

The junior high schools of New York City did not need the spur of Russian satellities to realize that their curriculums in science and mathematics required strengthening and revitalization. As long as five years ago, a new and more robust course of study in mathematics was introduced into the junior high schools; and in September 1958 (a month before Sputnik), we started on a revised, more intensive and more extensive course of study in science. During the past year, we have undertaken special try-out programs in science, foreign languages, mathematics, and other areas such as reading. However, work in music, art, and literature were also stepped up.

Would we have embarked on these changes without the pressure of Sputnik? I am pretty sure we would. For the past ten years we have been periodically re-examining the junior high-school courses of study in all subject areas to determine how adequate they were in content and how well we were implementing them in teaching. We have made and are making changes not only in mathematics and science; we have currently in operation an extensive program in reading—developmental as well as remedial.

In addition to curriculum revision and experimentation, our junior high schools have done a great deal in the tightening of requirements for promotion and graduation. Even before Sputnik, we had decided on a general raising of standards. We introduced a reading prerequisite for promotion from grade to grade and a reading prerequisite as well as the passing of four out of five major subjects and three out of four minor subjects as requirements for the junior high-school diploma. Home study assignments and projects have become an important and regular extension of the school day. In short, while we firmly believe that the junior high school is the best school environment for the early adolescent, providing him with individualization of instruction, offering him a variety of exploratory experiences, and creating for him a stimulating climate of socializing experiences and democratic living, we want to make sure that our curriculum is realistic and vital and that hard work and high standards are basic attributes of our junior high-school program.

My next question was this: How can we plan better to meet the needs of superior students (acceleration vs. enrichment, horizontal vs. vertical)?

From their very inception, New York City junior high schools have had a program of acceleration. In Special Progress classes (originally called Rapid Advance Classes), carefully selected groups of pupils complete the three-year junior high-school program in two years. In addition, the boys and girls in these classes are assigned special curricular projects as a further challenge to their abilities and talents. Actually then, we have, for our intellectually superior pupils, a program that combines both acceleration and enrichment.

To be eligible for admission to a Special Progress class, a pupil needs an I.Q. of 130, a reading grade of 8.9, and an arithmetic grade of 8.5; he must be at least 11 years and 3 months old, in good physical and emotional health and of good study habits. A leeway of 5 points in the I.Q. may be permitted in the case of pupils with compensatory ratings in reading and mathematics. This year we have 549 Special Progress classes, involving 19,000 pupils or 10.3 per cent of the total junior high-school register.

Besides the Special Progress classes, we have classes for bright pupils with an I.Q. range between 115 and 130. These classes do not have an accelerated program, but they do have a program of enrichment in such subject areas as the language arts, the social studies, mathematics, science, and foreign languages.

We do one other thing that we believe to be important. In addition to providing for boys and girls who are intellectually superior, we select and train those with special gifts in music, art, dramatics, and journalism. We do this through what we call talent classes, whose work begins during the regular school day, but then carries over into after-school, Saturday morning, and summer activities. Nor do we neglect the youngster whose superiority lies in neither high I.Q. nor talent as ordinarily conceived—but rather in leadership, in a strong and dynamic personality that makes others follow his lead. Such youngsters, who may be tomorrow's bellwethers in industry or politics, we try to involve in the rich and varied student activity programs that are a feature of our junior high schools, so that in a controlled environment their leadership qualities may be given socially useful and desirable direction.

During the past year, we have been giving thought to the advisability of eliminating our acceleration program for intellectually gifted pupils. Would it be in the best interests (long range as well as immediate) of these pupils to have them stay with us for a full three years of enriched curricular and extracurricular activity? Our thinking along these lines has been spurred by the fact that an acceleration program (doing 6 years work in 5) is being undertaken in the elementary schools. Two accelerations in the first nine years, making it possible for a bright youngster to enter college before he is sixteen, seems to us to be socially, psychologically, and pedagogically undesirable.

If we decide on enrichment rather than acceleration, the problem will be to spell out with some particularity just what we mean, since most teachers have only a vague idea of the specifics of an enrichment program. We would, with teachers and supervisors working together, have to show how to modify curriculum (both in extensiveness and intensiveness); how to modify teaching method (with much teacher-pupil planning, and special emphasis on the problem-project approach, on research, and on evaluation); and how to offer these youngsters expanded opportunities for school and community service (through after-school extracurricular activities and community projects).

Whatever plan for superior pupils we adopt, the general aim will be the same: to identify these boys and girls as early as possible and to provide them with a rich and stimulating school environment, an environment that will be most satisfying and challenging to their immediate as well as to their long-term needs.

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING PRACTICES IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Fred H. Combs, Jr.*, Principal, Lawrence Township Junior High School, Trenton, New Jersey

DISCUSSANTS:

William Holden, Assistant Principal, High School, Owatonna, Minnesota
George W. Janke, Principal, High School, Mitchell, South Dakota

Summary of the presentation made by HARRY B. SPENCER

PREPARING TEACHERS FOR THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

THE preparation of teachers to staff our junior high schools is a great deal like the weather; there are a lot of people talking about it, but few doing anything about it. One finds it difficult to name a college or university which provides any special program aimed at such preparation. Based upon reading, visits to many junior high schools, and participation in a number of conferences and workshops during the past ten years, an effort is made here to try to synthesize what has been gleaned and to give one person's views of what might be included in this preparation.

In that junior high schools select their teachers from those with either elementary or senior high-school preparation, this question has been asked of administrators many times: "Do you prefer a teacher with elementary or senior high-school preparation?" Invariably the reply is, "elementary." The reasons cited are: *first*, the philosophy of the person is usually oriented to the pupil rather than subject content, and *second*, the college preparation is more pupil-centered. This suggests that those who seek teachers would like to see some attention given to child growth and development and the understanding of the age group to be served.

However, it isn't all black or white, for further discussion with principals points out that the elementary schools are doing an excellent job for students enter junior high school with considerable background in the

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several subjects to be studied. In addition, it is recognized that, if a student is to be permitted to explore a subject, his teacher must feel free. This freedom comes through security gained through knowledge of the subject.

If reading is a big problem and if we really wish to convert words to action, every teacher should be prepared to teach reading. It will be necessary to get beyond the rationale and actually show ways in which techniques can be applied in the area to be taught. "One specific is worth a thousand generalities," to learn from that great teacher "Confusion."

Let's face the reality that "half the kids are below average" and that differences are here to stay; therefore, prepare teachers to cope with the situation. Students in preparation for teaching should learn the real facts about differences which occur in the classroom and then work with techniques of instruction which serve these differences.

Perhaps other parts of the country are different or staffs are younger, but it is interesting to poll a group of junior high-school teachers to learn how few ever attended a junior high school. It would seem only logical then that we include in the preparation of these teachers a background of knowledge and some supervised experience in the actual operational situations. Too often the functions of the junior high school are viewed merely as administrative procedures or extraclass appendages.

One of the central functions of the junior high school is that of guidance. Again we hear a hollow sound of "Every teacher has a responsibility for guidance." To translate this into a real responsibility, the preparation of each teacher should include a background in mental health and some basic preparation for the teacher's role in guidance. This preparation then has suggested several things that appear to be essential in the preparation of teachers for work in the junior high school and, to summarize, let me list those things which it is felt should be included:

1. A sound preparation in the field to be taught and what research has to say about teaching it.
2. A fundamental background on the place of the junior high school in the pattern of American education and the functions of this institution.
3. Sound preparation of teachers to carry out the functions of guidance and differentiation.
4. Prepare each prospective teacher so that he may truly be a teacher of reading within the framework of his own subject.
5. An understanding of the growth and development of children and adolescents with particular emphasis on the early adolescent.
6. Development of skills in working with students to fulfill the purposes of the extraclass program and the school-community concept.

To accomplish this, our colleges and universities will need to be concerned with more than the content of courses. Teaching methods at the college level will need to demonstrate more of the "do as I do" idea. Observation, laboratory opportunities, practice teaching, and internships

will need to be used so that firsthand experience can be gained if people are to be oriented to the junior high-school level.

In conclusion, permit one plea: Don't sit on "your *status quo*" or "*derniere*" waiting for this new crop of teachers to come along. Examine the opportunities you have for in-service education that will bring about the re-orientation of the ninety per cent of your staff that will return next year and the year after that.

Summary of the presentation made by B. R. MILLER

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TEACHING OF MATHEMATICS

THE sequence of arithmetic, algebra, plane geometry, advanced algebra, solid geometry, college algebra, trigonometry, analytic geometry, and calculus from elementary school to second-year college has been the pattern of the mathematics curriculum for a long time. There is no denying that there is ferment in the mathematics curriculum. The old curriculum pattern is condemned just because there have been no significant changes for many years; some say 50 years. The valid reasons for changing the course of study are the new needs brought about by science and such other fields as investments and insurance involving statistics and probability.

The introduction of new topics in the mathematics course of study may cause the dropping of older ones or the speeding up of the instructional process. There is a tendency in some quarters to overlook the value a student receives by working many problems to gain experience in the whole field of mathematics.

The demand that the mathematics curriculum be more functional is good provided the theory and concepts are not slighted. One of the joys and benefits of studying mathematics is the mastery of theory and concept that goes deeper than the idea that the subject consists only of such facts as two plus two equals four.

The problems inherent in the learning process of pupils will not become less through curriculum revisions. One such problem is the teacher's concern as to how much real learning is taking place in the students. Do they understand concepts and theorems? It should be of some comfort to the instructors to realize that the four fundamental operations in arithmetic must be taught to some pupils who will have no idea of why the systems of multiplication and division are used. There is some question that the new first-year college course in calculus and analytic geometry requires the student to use formulas that he will not understand until later. Engineers and scientists use formulas in mathematics handbooks that they cannot prove. Nevertheless, the goal of mathematics instruc-

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tion for the above-the-average student should be the complete mastery of theorems and concepts.

Some authorities are advocating that the curriculum in mathematics be revised so that the high-school graduate of strong scholastic ability is ready for calculus in his first year of college. This may mean that analytic geometry will be taught in the senior year of high school, or that it will be taken simultaneously with calculus in college. There is a tendency to combine plane and solid geometry into a one-year course in high school.

There is danger that the course outlined in the preceding paragraph will deprive the student of some experience in the field of mathematics that he ought to have. The road to geometry is no more royal than it was in Euclid's time.

One of the important developments in the teaching of mathematics is the new textbook. Progress has been made in the teaching aids in elementary-school arithmetic. The recent algebra texts include such topics as determinates, permutations, combinations, probability, statistics, rates of change as an introduction to calculus, higher degree equations, mathematical induction, and inequalities. Another feature of the modern text is the provision for individual differences by including topics and exercises labeled A, B, and C. The same text may also outline a minimum, a medium, and a maximum course in the subject.

The concept of function is introduced early in the new algebra, a concept that proved difficult for students of some years ago when they first met it in the calculus.

Pupils in the elementary school are introduced to algebra and geometry in their study of arithmetic.

Some of the new texts are so well written that they are almost self-teaching. It is now possible for a good teacher to give his students more genuine mathematics in a given time than ever before.

Another development in the teaching of mathematics is the improved quality of teaching. The younger teachers are entering the field better prepared, and the older teachers are improving through in-service training programs. Colleges and universities are conducting valuable summer institutes for mathematics teachers. Industrial establishments are co-operating with educational organizations and financing summer programs for teachers of mathematics and science.

The task that curriculum makers in mathematics face is to develop a course that will satisfy the needs of general education for all, and to meet the needs of the college major in mathematics as well as the needs of the science and engineering students. None of the old that gives the student good experience should be discarded, and room must be found for the new. The desire to accelerate should not take precedence over the need for sound training and experience in the fundamentals of mathematics. A hopeful sign is that those qualified to speak are advocating a gradual change from the old to the new in the mathematics curriculum, a process of evolution rather than revolution.

Summary of the presentation made by KEITH JOHNSON

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN THE TEACHING OF SCIENCE

THOROUGH, long-range, and thoughtful studies are under way in science curriculums that deserve the most serious consideration by principals. Physics (required of all high-school students in the Russian schools), has already been prepared in a new course for the use of our high schools by a nationally representative group of physicists and teachers, under the direction of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology. The teaching of biology is currently under investigation at the University of Colorado, and it is significant, also, that, in many systems, biology is being introduced at the ninth-grade level. Colleges are becoming interested in advanced placement programs in the sciences which should encourage advanced science courses in high schools.

The National Defense Education Act makes Federal money available on a matching basis to purchase laboratory and demonstration equipment. A *Purchase Guide*, available to all principals, has been prepared by the Council of Chief State School Officers. This *Guide* should serve as a basic standard for equipping schools in any program for upgrading science teaching.

Recognizing teacher deficiencies, the National Science Foundation supports several types of teacher training programs. Academic year programs, summer institutes, fellowships, and research activities are open to science teachers. In spite of the dimensions of this effort by the NSF, many science teachers still lack training and should be encouraged by principals to apply for one or more of these programs.

More attention is being given by many schools to the supervision of science teaching. The number of science supervisors has greatly increased in recent years, both at the state and local levels. The Traveling Science Teacher Program of the Oak Ridge Institute of Nuclear Studies is giving considerable assistance to the supervision of science teaching.

Some basic challenges face principals. Good science teaching requires demonstrations and laboratory work. Teachers assigned to the collecting of football tickets, and to many other extra duties, cannot develop these teaching necessities to the degree needed. More time must be made available to science teachers for the preparation of demonstrations and laboratory work.

Teacher training institutions must devote more time to training teachers in the use of demonstration and laboratory material. New teachers coming into our schools lack an appreciation of the importance of demonstrations

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and laboratory work, and, in too many cases, do not know how to use the materials.

The availability of laboratory assistants on a paid basis in many school systems is a program worthy of serious study. These assistants are not teachers; they prepare demonstrations and set up laboratories for the teachers.

Summary of the presentation made by ALBERT WILLIS

NATIONAL CONTESTS AND ACTIVITIES

EACH year the high schools of the country are requested to participate in contests and other activities of almost every conceivable kind. Time and space do not permit a discussion of the many problems school administrators face in dealing with these activities. Consequently, I shall limit my remarks to what I believe to be one of the least desirable types of contests; namely, the essay.

The supervision and control of essay contests has come to be one of the most trying problems school administrators have had to face, and it is one of the most difficult ones to solve. It seems that any organization which has a product, a program, or a name to sell or a service to render seizes upon the idea of organizing a contest of some type for publicity purposes. A common procedure is for the sponsor to organize an essay contest, announce the rules, set up the awards and request the schools to administer the contest and select local winners for advancement to a state or national round of competition.

There are, of course, some differences of opinion among high-school administrators as to the educational value of these contests. However, a recent study conducted by Dr. Ablett H. Flury for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals indicates that more than half of the high-school principals consulted said that essay contests were planned more for the publicity of the sponsor than for the benefit of the participating students. While there is a division of opinion regarding the educational value of essay contests, there is a rather general agreement that it is not and should not be the function of the high schools of the country to serve as an advertising medium for commercial organizations or as a channel through which service clubs or similar organizations may keep their names before the public.

While it is true that there is nothing objectionable about the subject matter of many of the essay contests in which the schools are asked to

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participate and that as a general rule the participating students are not involved in extensive travel or absence from school, there are some objectionable features about these contests. Among these are: (1) they often duplicate work which is already being done in some department of the school; (2) teachers are sometimes required to take time away from several students in their regular classes to give help to a few outstanding contestants who may desire to participate in a contest; (3) unless the contest is carefully supervised, it is difficult to tell whether the essay is the product of the contestant or whether it has been written by someone else; (4) pressure is oftentimes brought to bear on school officials to sponsor contests in which they can see no educational value; (5) pressure is sometimes placed on a school to enter a given contest just because contestants from a neighboring school may have been winners in the contest the previous year; and (6) many times the awards offered by the sponsoring organization are small in amount and few in number and are not at all commensurate with the amount of publicity the sponsor receives from the contest.

Because of the many objectionable features of essay contests, the NASSP Committee on National Contests and Activities has agreed not to place any additional contests of this type on the Approved List. Furthermore, the sponsors of essay contests which have appeared on the Approved List for several years will be requested to appear before the Committee at its Annual Meeting in May 1960. At that time, they will be advised to discontinue these contests or to replace them with some type of activity which will have greater educational merit. It is hoped that through the efforts of the Committee and the cooperation of our high-school administrators, the essay as a contest vehicle may be completely eliminated.

WHAT IS THE CASE FOR AND AGAINST MERIT RATING FOR TEACHERS?

CHAIRMAN: *Dale P. Parnell*, Principal, Senior High School, Springfield, Oregon

DISCUSSANTS:

Rowland H. Ross, Principal, Hastings High School, Hastings-on-Hudson, New York

Fred F. Schultz, Principal, High School, West Bend, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by THOMAS STIRLING

HAVING served on a committee charged with formulating a plan for the merit rating of teachers, I feel relieved to be able to discuss the *pros* and *cons* of instituting such a system. First, I can assure you that praising or condemning merit rating is much easier than fashioning a workable instrument. Although the scope of this discussion is not to outline a rating system, I should like to make some statements concerning merit rating before giving reasons for and against it.

There can be only one valid reason for instituting a plan of rating and subsequent salary increases for merit teachers, and that reason must be the ultimate improvement of the teaching-learning process (within the system). Any other reason can be proved invalid.

The supposition that merit increases can contribute toward giving the mediocre or lazy teacher an incentive to improve and to keep the superior teacher teaching in the classroom is reasonable if no other factors are at work at the same time. The ill-feeling and dissatisfaction of many teachers toward merit rating would clearly not result in the desired improvement. Teachers must have reason to believe that no one will lose by the plan, but that some will gain. The plan should be one of reward for the true merit teacher and not one of penalty for the average or even excellent teacher.

There would be general agreement as to the identity of superior teachers in a given building even on the basis of subjective judgment. However, to "prove" the judgment to a teacher not so named is another thing. Although common judgment of the group and by the group is not too variable, when we judge an individual (and we must), we must be prepared to give reasons for our judgment. Granted that our rating must be based upon objective criteria, we must still be subjective in our evaluation based upon these criteria. Teachers should become merit teachers only on their all-around worth to the pupils and the school.

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Many statements and refutations have been made concerning merit rating. Whether the following statement or the refutations are correct is still a matter for conjecture. Take your choice.

In a democracy, a person should be judged and rewarded upon his individual worth.—It is undemocratic for one person to be categorized by the opinion of another.

A good teacher should be paid more than an average one.—Merit salary would result (finally) in average teachers being underpaid.

It is not difficult to recognize a merit teacher.—It is impossible to identify the merit teacher.

The morale of excellent teachers can be raised by recognition and monetary reward.—Staff morale will be lowered when certain teachers are singled out for increased salaries for similar duties.

Merit rating encourages teachers to evaluate themselves and to improve.—Merit rating stifles a free exchange of ideas and techniques when teachers are in competition with one another.

Merit rating would result in greater service to the school by teachers.—Non-merit teachers would tend to shun extra duties by saying, "Let the merit teacher do it."

All teachers should be rated by the same criteria.—It is impossible to rate a gym teacher and a physics teacher by the same criteria.

If classroom teachers are rated, then all licensed personnel should be rated.—A non-merit supervisor would be in an untenable situation to rate others.

Only a relatively few teachers should attain merit status.—Parents would object to having their children placed in the classes of non-merit teachers.

Improvement of instruction through supervision would be enhanced because teachers would be anxious to improve.—Constructive supervision would be destroyed because teachers would tend to cover up weaknesses rather than seek improvement through working with a supervisor.

I would like to conclude with two statements. If I were an administrator, I would fear the effect that such a plan would have upon the morale of the school. If I were a classroom teacher, I would demand that a merit system be instituted.

Summary of the presentation made by LERUE WINGET

ASSUMING that my colleague would likely present an objective discussion of arguments for and against merit rating of teachers, I have chosen rather to report on the efforts of the state of Utah in recent years to overcome the problems involved in merit rating and to find a successful method of applying the merit principle. In so doing, I believe it is accurate to say that some of the claims for and against will be on trial.

LaVar Chaffin, educational writer for the *Deseret News*, has stated, "Perhaps in no state in the nation has merit rating been more thoroughly

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discussed than in Utah. It also is probable that no other state has put so much time and money into the study of merit programs."¹

I wish I could tell you that through this effort Utah has been successful in finding a method of applying the merit principle with profit to boys and girls. Perhaps the day will come when this is so. It hasn't yet. Still much progress has been made, and efforts to resolve some of the problems continue. The discussion which follows includes a brief review of major efforts, promising findings, and present circumstances in Utah related to this complex problem.

UTAH SCHOOL MERIT STUDY

The Utah Public School Survey Commission, established to make a comprehensive study of the Utah public school system, in its report of February 1953 urged that a study be made of merit programs. In December 1953, the Utah State Legislature authorized a study to consider the feasibility of merit appraisals and merit salary programs for Utah public school personnel. A nine-member, lay-educator committee was formed and proceeded to work in April 1954. Funds were made available by the Legislature for pilot studies in three districts. These studies began in the Provo City, Jordan, and Sevier districts during the 1954-55 school year. Each of these districts has developed definitions of teaching, emphasizing behavioral functions which show promise and on which further refinement is taking place.

The most recent report of the Utah School Merit Study Committee was made in November 1958. This report summarized the committee's findings to that point from the local studies and from their investigation of the reason for success and failure of systems throughout the United States. The Committee concluded that:

1. Personnel evaluation is feasible.
2. Merit salary programming is also feasible.
3. A properly conducted evaluation program will result in improved teaching.
4. When necessary conditions have been established, most teachers can be expected to support the operation of merit programs.
5. Merit programs established in disregard of the basic conditions (listed in the report) will not function well.
6. Any attempt to impose merit programming on a local district would be damaging to long-term development of beneficial merit procedures.
7. A very careful preparation and training period is necessary before a school district can handle the technical and human relationship problems inherent in a thorough-going merit program.
8. Improvements in the definition and description of teaching should lead directly to improvement in pre-service and in-service training of teachers.
9. It is possible and necessary to attain a higher degree of objectivity in teacher appraisal than has usually been achieved.

¹ LaVar Chaffin. "Citizens Look to Your Schools." *Deseret News Press*, 1959, P. 43.

10. Appraisal systems possessing only superficial objectivity or reliability result in disillusionment concerning the application of the merit concept.

11. It is possible to operate a merit salary program and to maintain good morale.

12. Continued cooperative research is needed further to test, refine, and extend the procedures which have been developed.

13. There is a long-standing need for improvements in the typical school district supervisory and personnel evaluation practices.

14. Consistent, long-term leadership by the State Department of Education in the improvement of evaluation, in-service training programs, and competence in administration and supervision is important.

15. There is a considerable need for school boards and professional educators to work together to clarify the goals of salary programs and then to take steps to implement those goals.

In addition to the conclusions indicated above, the Committee also listed nine conditions which it considered basic for the successful implementation of a local personnel evaluation and merit salary program. It was considered necessary that these conditions be met by a local district before additional funds were approved by the state agency. These are significant, but space does not permit listing them here.

RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

As an outgrowth of the conclusions and recommendations of the School Merit Study Committee, the 1959 Legislature passed a law providing financial assistance for both administrative costs and extra costs of a merit salary program. These provisions are to be limited to not more than five districts at the present time. Three districts so far have entered into an official agreement to participate under the provisions of the law.

THE FUTURE?

Will merit rating succeed in Utah? Only time will tell. Further careful and continued research is needed. Some successes and some set-backs have been experienced. Cooperation from all interested parties, however, has so far kept the hope alive that the seemingly impossible will, somehow, be achieved.

DO INTERSCHOLASTIC ATHLETICS IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AID OR RETARD A DESIRABLE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM?

CHAIRMAN: *Owen E. Hodgson*, Principal, Senior High School, Salina, Kansas

DISCUSSANTS:

Robert B. Harris, Principal, L. V. Stockard Junior High School, Dallas, Texas

Frank L. Jones, Principal, William O. Darby Junior High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

Summary of the presentation made by GENE D. MAYBEE

A BRIEF summary of the philosophy of the junior high-school program as it relates to the activities involved in athletics needs to be identified as a starting point. The academic growth for youngsters of junior high-school age counts very little except in conjunction with progress along other lines such as becoming more independent of adult controls, extending the boundaries of his interest and identifications, and experiencing the support of a growing circle of fine friends. In addition, the youngster's general physical development may be out of step with his social development or both his physical and social growth may be out of line with his mental development. As far as unevenness of growth is concerned, the junior high-school youngster is usually as much out of kilter as he ever will be. However unsynchronized their growth may temporarily be, each is probably growing normally for himself.

Intellectually, junior high-school boys and girls are nearing their full maturity. They differ, of course, in capacity and breadth of experience, but, typically, their interests are wide and varied and their attitudes experimental. We can afford to give them a rich and varied mental diet just as they are attempting to become more independent of parental supervision, to extend the range of their friendships, and to go further afield for their activities. Their interest in athletics is so intense that they are satisfied only when they can participate in the program. This is also a part of the exploration into the areas of organized athletics as a member of a team. However, the concept of interscholastic athletics where we have a so-called varsity team representing one junior high school in competition with a varsity team of another junior high school does not provide a desirable educational program at this level.

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The type of athletic program that I see meeting the needs of junior high-school boys and one that is consistent with the philosophy of the junior high school is a program that provides for wide participation in a given sport and at the same time is not identified as a varsity team. For example, let us take the sport of football. Just how would such a program work? All boys interested in playing football would be divided into groups so that competition is with other boys of similar age, weight, grade, and height. We may end up with three gradations—the lightweights, the middleweights, and the heavyweights. The assignments to these groups are obtained through a very specific formula. At each weight-level classification, the boys are divided into squads making the squads as even as possible from the standpoint of the ability of the youngsters. A group of 50 to 60 boys in a particular weight division would provide enough for two teams or squads. These squads would have a starting team and reserves or, in some instances, an offensive and a defensive team. In school systems where there are two or more junior high schools, a game schedule can be worked out assuming that two or three weeks of practice under the supervision of the physical education department and some additional members of the teaching staff precede the initial contest. With such a program, all boys who are interested in playing football, regardless of their size, age, or weight, have an opportunity to compete. At the same time each is a member of a team and secures the benefits of team experience.

With such a program as identified in football, in the course of the three years the junior high-school boy has had an opportunity to participate in a sport. He either knows whether he likes that particular sport well enough to continue with it or decides that some other kind of activity is the thing that he wants to pursue when he gets to the senior high school. This again ties in with our over-all philosophy of exploration at the junior high-school level. A well-planned and supervised program, such as has been outlined for football, will provide participation for over 50 per cent of the boys in the junior high school. Yet a program of interscholastic athletics of the concept of a varsity and a junior varsity team at the junior high-school level, particularly in a school with 400 or more boys in it, will provide participation for only 15 to 20 per cent at the most.

Programs similar to the one outlined for football can be provided for all sports and so offer wide participation for the greatest number of junior high-school students. This then is not an interscholastic program, but it does provide for a desirable over-all educational program.

Summary of the presentation made by OLIVER McCracken, JR.

THE question of interscholastic athletics at the pre-high-school level is a subject which is highly controversial. This difference of opinion pertains not only to educators, but also to the allied professions and the lay public. In recent years, as far as I have been able to observe, this difference of opinion has not abated to any appreciable extent. With the recent national plea for physical fitness in addition to the outcry for strengthening our academic programs, we can probably anticipate an increase in the tempo of discussions as to whether or not we should have interscholastic athletics for students at the junior high-school level. In planning the total educational program for your community, interscholastic athletics should be in keeping with your philosophy as to what constitutes a desirable educational program for your particular community. Whether you favor interscholastic athletics or not, this one aspect of your program should be consistent with your total program. Consistency within itself helps to substantiate your position on any aspect of a school's program.

Before we review some of the research pertaining to competitive athletics below the high-school level, we should familiarize ourselves with what is currently being done in junior high schools throughout the country. A recent national survey on interscholastic athletics in buildings organized as junior high schools¹ indicated that slightly more than 85 per cent of the junior high schools in the country participated in interscholastic athletics. This same survey also showed that 78 per cent of the principals responding to the survey were in favor of interscholastic athletics. Schools which anticipated a change in policy regarding interscholastic athletics were moving toward more rather than less competitive athletics.

When we begin to look at some of the research on interscholastic athletics at the junior high-school level, the situation isn't as clear as we would desire. One obvious reason for this is the fact that we have to be concerned about several aspects of child growth and development. Such items as physiological development, social and psychological growth, all have to be taken into consideration. Within certain limits one can find some studies to substantiate either side of the question you care to choose. In one study² 70 per cent of the orthopedists indicated that athletic competition does present a special hazard to adolescents in connection with fractures of certain bones. Another study³ found quite the opposite

¹ Tompkins, Ellsworth, and Virginia Roe. *A Survey of Interscholastic Athletic Programs in Separately Organized Junior High Schools*. Washington, D.C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals. 1958. 47 pp. 75 cents. Also in the November 1958 issue of THE BULLETIN, pages 1-48.

² Joint Committee on Athletic Competition for Children of Elementary and Junior High Age. *Desirable Athletic Competition for Children*. Washington, D.C.: American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation. 1953.

³ Falt, Hollis. *An Analytical Study of the Effects of Competitive Athletics on Junior High-School Boys*. Doctoral dissertation. Iowa City: State University of Iowa. 1951.

Oliver McCracken, Jr., is Principal of Oakview Junior High School, Skokie, Illinois.

when 85 per cent of the orthopedists expressed an opinion that fractures of these same bones were less prevalent in adolescents. A study by Marcel DeLotto at the University of Oregon⁴ indicated that students participating in junior high-school athletics did not grow as much as those who did not participate. A study, made by L. W. McCraw⁵ and given to the American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation in 1954, indicated that growth was stimulated by participating in competitive athletics. Insofar as we were able to examine studies dealing with social or psychological growth in relation to interscholastic athletics, most of the studies seem to indicate a slight positive gain for competitive athletics. An example of these studies which found a positive relationship between competitive athletics and social or psychological growth would be the study made by Hollis Fait at the University of Iowa in 1951⁶ or the study made by McCraw and Tolbert in 1953.⁷ It is obvious that you will be able to find a study which substantiates your position in regard to competitive athletics, but, by the same token, your opposition will be able to do likewise.

If research has not clearly defined the relationship of competitive athletics to child growth and development, what can best be utilized to assist us? If you look around you in the locality where you are presently employed, or an area where you are well acquainted, you will see several school systems which have good educational programs. Most of these schools will have a philosophy of education which is consistent throughout their total educational program. If you have doubts or need additional information concerning interscholastic athletics, inquire from them whether or not competitive sports have a place in their school programs. You will never find a school plant, student body, or faculty which is an exact replica of your school, but quite often the similarity will be surprising. You will be able to find what seems to be the basic ingredients for a successful program. Our own township would be a good example. Seven junior high schools have competitive athletics while the remaining two schools do not. It is not a question of financial need, but rather a part of their educational philosophy.

The local level offers many possibilities, but organization at the state level can also make very worth-while contributions. In some states there are controls patterned after the systems used in the high schools. In other states there is a committee formulating suggestions and policies without having any power to enforce them. At the present time, Illinois is a good example of the latter type.

⁴ DeLotto, Marcel. *The Effects of Competitive Athletics on the Growth and Development of Pre-pubescent Boys*. Doctoral dissertation. Eugene: University of Oregon. 1954.

⁵ McCraw, L. W. *Comparison of Physical Growth and Development of Athletes and Non-Athletes at the Junior High-School Level*. Report to Research Section, American Association for Health, Physical Education, and Recreation, National Convention, March 1956.

⁶ Fait, Hollis. *op. cit.*

⁷ McCraw, L. W., and J. W. Tolbert. *Sociometric Status and Athletic Ability of Junior High-School Boys*. *Research Quarterly* 24: 78-80, March 1953.

Several years ago the school people of Illinois felt a need for some clarification of interscholastic activities at the junior high-school level. Throughout the state various groups were organized for the express purpose of providing district and state tournaments to determine various championship teams. In an effort to find what was desirable for junior high schools, a committee was established to study the entire situation. This committee was called the Illinois Elementary Interscholastic Association. Representatives of the various junior high-school organizations, representatives from the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, and various administrative groups met in order to formulate policies regarding the various interscholastic activities. The policies which evolved from this committee are not binding on any school, but are quite informative. The policies do not state whether interscholastic athletics are desirable or undesirable. They merely say, "If a school has interscholastic athletics, these are some practices which should be observed."⁸ Such a list is extremely helpful in guiding an embryonic program or evaluating a mature one.

In the final analysis, regardless of the information accumulated, competitive athletics still have to be justified or disqualified on the basis of your individual educational programs. Interscholastic athletics strengthens the educational program in our school system, so we consider it to be a worth-while part of our school program. Many of the basic factors in interscholastic athletics are inherent in our educational program. To us competition is not a nasty word because it has a place in our classroom as well as the gymnasium. Safety rules regarding the health of our students are as carefully observed in competitive athletics as they are in our physical education classes. The emotional aspect of a child's growth is probably better protected in our sports program than in some classes. We do not require a specific grade point average for eligibility because achievement must be commensurate with ability. We feel we are better meeting the physical needs of our boys because we have such a broad intramural program in addition to competitive sports.

We don't feel concerned about supervision because we have such well-qualified personnel directing the program. The athletic program certainly doesn't direct our school system because our entire staff recognizes that it is only one facet of a broad educational program. This basic consistency between competitive sports and our educational program is what has convinced us that the program has merit for our school.

In conclusion I would like to say that the basic problem of competitive interscholastic athletics is not the sport itself, but rather what is made out of the sport by adults. The evils of competition at this age level lie in the administration of the program. To give a child at this age the necessary and fun loving skills of competitive athletics presupposes good administration of the program. After all, that is the responsibility of each and everyone.

⁸ Illinois Elementary Interscholastic Association. *Recommended Policies for Conducting Boys' Interscholastic Athletics*. Adopted 5-17-59.

HOW RESOLVE THE HOT ISSUE: EARLY DECISION PLANS FOR COLLEGE ADMISSION?

CHAIRMAN: *Robert N. Bush*, Professor of Education, Stanford University,
Stanford, California

DISCUSSANTS:

Robert A. Martin, Principal, Mariemont High School, Cincinnati, Ohio
Rolland J. Ring, Principal, Edina Morningside Senior High School,
Edina, Minnesota

PANEL:

Ellsworth M. Gerritz, Director of Admissions, Kansas State College,
Manhattan, Kansas
Edgar Stahl, Principal, Emmerich Manual Training High School, Indianapolis, Indiana
Roy E. Halladay, Principal, High School, East Grand Rapids, Michigan
George H. Fields, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary Education,
Public Schools, Boise, Idaho

Summary of the presentation made by ELLSWORTH M. GERRITZ

ALL of us who work with teenagers and young people have noted with some alarm and concern the inclination of our youngsters toward activities previously reserved for those a bit older. Parents and teachers have hastened our youth in such activities as dancing, dating, and dressing beyond their years.

And those of us in high schools and colleges have been rather insistent that decisions relating to college going be made early. For those with well conceived and firm college convictions requiring prescribed preparation this is perhaps a good thing. However, it appears that most young people need more time for exploration before they commit themselves to a particular course of study in a particular college.

Colleges with restricted facilities and staff must, of course, restrict their enrollment. Naturally these colleges are anxious to restrict to the clientele they desire to serve whether this be on an ability, geographic, religious, or financial base. Since they are dependent on a limited enrollment, it is imperative that their input reach that limitation but not exceed it. The early decision plan—the marriage of a student to a college at the opening of his senior year in high school—has been one approach to the solution of this problem. Since many of the colleges which have this problem are “prestige” schools, it has been advantageous for “feeding” secondary schools to cooperate in these plans. There are advantages and disadvantages.

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1. The institution is guaranteed an excellent selection.
2. The institution is guaranteed its normal quota of students.
3. The institution can counsel with these students over a long period of time.
4. The institution avoids competition for these students from institutions which prefer to admit later.
5. The institution has its paper work reduced.

The advantages to the individual are:

1. Early selection and the guarantee of a place in the institution.
2. Relief from later multiple applications and worry.

The advantages to the high school are:

1. Placement of a few of its students early.
2. Possibly reduced paper work associated with these students.

There are, of course, certain disadvantages to each of the three groups above. The least of these appear for the college except as they select too many early and do not have the opportunity to select desirable students who make college decisions or inquiries later.

1. The individual who is not selected early is subject to the frustration of the first denial even though he may later qualify.

2. The individual must commit himself early and remain with that commitment. There are some who feel this early decision is too early for most high-school juniors.

3. The student who develops late is at a disadvantage so far as early consideration at a college practicing early decision is concerned.

4. The high school has less time to advise a student properly.

5. The high school has little choice of decision to participate or not participate in such a program.

6. So few are selected early that paper work is actually not decreased.

The early decision plans have been proposed and used as particular needs have arisen in specific colleges. The fact that early decision plans have not grown rapidly and have affected the early selection of only a very few students suggests that the plan has merit for only a limited number of colleges.

Since the press of enrollment has not reached the Mid-West as yet and since most institutions of higher learning in that area are asking for students rather than turning them away, early decision plans have not entered the picture in any way. This means that qualified students may request a statement relative to their possible admission at any time during their late junior or early senior year in high school and receive an early decision based on information available at that time. For all practical purposes, this decision is final except in those few instances in which the student fails to maintain an acceptable record. This decision is not binding on the individual in any way. He might secure such a provisional admission from twelve institutions. To a degree, it is binding on the institution if the student maintains a good record.

Under this plan the individual has the advantage of another year of exploration and development. To many this year of decision is much too important to sacrifice for the early acceptance and commitment, the early marriage, if you will, to a specific college.

There is perhaps one other aspect of the problem which needs further exploration. High-school principals and counselors have urged that early decision colleges select as much as 50 to 75 per cent of their beginning classes instead of a much smaller percentage. Such could conceivably help reduce the multiplicity of applications. However, these colleges have elected to remain highly selective. It is this high degree of selectivity which is not readily defensible if only the most superior students are sought. For the indices for selection become less and less valuable for discriminating purposes as the band of selection becomes more and more narrowly defined. Since prediction of performance is made for individuals on the basis of data assembled from groups, the prediction is subject to error, individual by individual, although it may be 50 to 60 per cent accurate for the group. Further, we run the danger of developing a generation of students who do well or have prepared themselves to do well on the kind of measures used by the college for selection purposes.

There is perhaps an even more significant development on the horizon which may preclude any further development of early decision plans. This would be the inauguration of post-high-school programs of general education and terminal programs, vocational in nature, for students who do not wish and probably would not benefit as much from a traditional college program.

If such programs can be developed, accepted, financed, and respected by parents, young people, and teachers, the demand for the traditional college program would be lessened to such a degree that crowding would not become the major problem it promises to be. Of course all we have at this time is lip service to such a proposal; though each will agree that it is a wonderful idea for my neighbors' children, but mine will enroll in an established college.

Lest this is interpreted as a plea against early decisions, I hasten to add that I believe the decisions of youth should be kept open ended as long as possible. The considered decision to look with favor toward college, or the well-conceived decision that college is not for me and other programs should elicit my interest, needs to be fostered early. The realistic and objective approach to this important decision of youth must continue over a long period of time and survive the vacillations and instability of youth if it is to result in a valid and happy choice. We should do all that we can to preserve the conditions which will best insure such a choice.

Summary of the presentation made by EDGAR STAHL

WHAT has provoked all the discussion about making an early decision in the selection of a college? Basically it grows out of an old law in economics, the law of supply and demand. We now find that the demand for admission to the "prestige" colleges has reached the point where approximately three qualified students are rejected for every one accepted. Although there was an increase of 190,000 students enrolled in degree-granting institutions of higher learning last fall, this increase does not, as yet—despite numerous scare articles to the contrary—bring total college enrollment beyond existing facilities. Matching applicants and colleges continues to be one of the most perplexing, complex problems that high-school guidance personnel, college admissions officers, and college-bound students and their parents have to solve.

Not too many years ago, the student was the buyer; the college, the seller; and about the only prerequisite for enrollment in college was the price of tuition. Today, the majority of colleges are still the sellers, but not for long. What is now true in the so-called quality institutions, where those admitted represent one out of every four or five who are refused, will become characteristic of practically all colleges and universities in the next five years. By then, the number of applicants will be doubled.

This situation has created, and will continue to intensify, the problem of multiple applications. The student fearful of not being admitted to the college of his choice is making application to three or four different institutions. Although this creates many problems for the high-school counselors and college admissions people, it is at present the only sensible answer for the student who is faced with the problem of finding a college that will admit him. To expect students and parents to make only one application and then to sit calmly by until late spring of the senior year for the institutions of their choice to notify them is being totally unrealistic and grossly unfair.

On the other hand, colleges knowing that the same student may have made several applications are faced with this multiple application bugaboo and must decide on a safe acceptance figure which will not be so low that they will be confronted with rows of empty seats, or so high that more students are likely to appear during registration week than the school can accommodate. There seems to be some concern that the college admissions officers in their efforts to cope with this perplexing problem will completely lose sight of the equally perplexing situations confronting the applicants.

Another aspect of this problem which has not been generally considered as yet is the pressure for high performance at the secondary-school level.

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The student is not only encouraged, but driven, to work for superior grades, not for the love of learning, but because this is the only means to the desired goal: admission to the college of his choice. Certainly high standards of achievement should be expected of the more capable high-school student, but the demands should be within reason and not detrimental to the physical and emotional welfare of the individual. Already, our "prestige" colleges are witnessing a curious phenomenon: the fatigued freshman, who has spent the previous four years knocking himself out to get into college and is just plain tired. It is rather interesting to note that the occupational disease of students today is mononucleosis, which is a virus nourished by exhaustion.

As a result of this bothersome problem, in the winter of 1958, a few colleges announced that they would grant acceptances in the early fall to certain exceptional candidates on the basis of work completed through grade 11 and tests taken in the junior year. This move, which was first considered to be quite revolutionary, was, in reality, nothing but the formalization of a policy that had been practiced for many years by some admissions officers. For a long time, college admissions officers on visiting a school have indicated to guidance people and principals that certain exceptional students would be given a preferred rating, which promised admission provided that the student finished the year with a strong record and did satisfactorily on College Board tests.

In the first year of the program, initiated by a number of women's colleges, there were from three to eight times as many candidates as could be accommodated. Had not many other colleges stepped in at this point, full chaos would have burst forth; and the new plan probably would have been abandoned. These other schools, fearful that they would lose all of their top students, rushed in to grab the early rejects. Most plans were adopted in haste and with only one object in mind: to beat the opposition to the draw for top students.

Those in favor of the plan claim that it: (1) reduces the problem of multiple applications; (2) helps the college establish a firm freshman enrollment; and (3) shortens students' span of worry over college admissions.

Those still questioning the program say that it: (1) accelerates prematurely the selection of a college; (2) fails to take into consideration the quality of work in the senior year of high school; (3) causes increased frustration of applicants not selected early; and (4) reduces the likelihood of acceptance at the first-choice college of those students rejected for early admission.

Another factor working against general approval of the early decision plan, which is disclaimed by most college admissions officers, is the feeling that it reduces scholarship opportunities and the amount of scholarship assistance. Students who agree not to make application to any other college and at time of acceptance are required to make a non-refundable payment

toward expenses of the freshman year may not receive the same scholarship consideration as the top student who has not committed himself.

At the present time, it seems that the Early Decision Plan will not of itself solve the problems confronting the college admissions officers or the students seeking admission. The crux of the admissions problem is how to match the right student with the right college. Implicit in the matching process is not only getting the student admitted to a college but also getting him admitted to a college where he will stay—reasonably happy and reasonably successful—and from which he will eventually be graduated and will obtain a degree.

The following suggestions might tend to ease some of the pressures of college admissions both for the admissions officers and the students:

1. More colleges prepare information describing the general nature of their freshmen classes, specific admission standards, and procedures in order that the high-school counselors may counsel more effectively and that applicants may make appropriate college plans. (Too often college catalogues are difficult to understand and vague as to the type of student in which the college is interested. Lack of realistic information about curricular offerings of colleges, academic standards required for graduation as well as for admission, the cultural and social life, and the characteristics of the student body has been recognized as one of the major reasons for college failure and dropout.)

2. Colleges permit students who rank in the upper ten per cent of their classes to make application at the conclusion of grade 11 and notify them of acceptance or rejection not later than October 15.

3. Students who make early application agree not to apply to another college until after their applications have been accepted or rejected.

4. Students when notified of acceptance will make a firm commitment and a non-refundable deposit toward expenses of the freshman year.

5. Secondary schools strengthen their guidance programs so that competent counselors are available to help students and parents with this important decision.

6. Colleges develop realistic admissions standards within the framework of the established philosophies of their institutions and make prompt replies to applicants to notify them of their admission status—not delay acceptance notifications until late spring of the senior year.

The increasing enormity of the problem of college admission will require greater cooperation of the colleges and the secondary schools. It will not be solved by colleges alone, by high schools alone, or by a testing program alone. There must be cooperation and a systematic exchange of significant and pertinent information between secondary schools and colleges.

Summary of the presentation made by ROY E. HALLADAY

IN SPEAKING of Early Decision Plans for college admission, we are referring to that procedure under which a college offers to report, in advance, its decision on admission to superior candidates. Students with excellent school records may submit an application in the early fall of their senior year if they agree that the college is their first and only choice and that no application will be submitted to another college pending this decision. The college, in turn, agrees to notify them by December (1) of their acceptance, (2) of their complete rejection, or (3) that their decision will be reviewed and considered in the spring for notification in May.

The plan itself is a sincere attempt on the part of its initiators to reduce the multiplicity of applications plaguing both the schools and colleges. It has some inherent side effects, however, which may, in the long run, bring on more problems than it solves. It is the danger of these side effects and their possible deterrents about which we would like to speak.

The danger lies in the fact that college admissions—much as college people are loathe to admit it—is a highly competitive business. The problem is not now as critical as alarmist newspaper and magazine editors would have the general public believe. Even so, the relatively small number of nationally known “prestige” colleges are faced with far more applications than they can comfortably process. The next decade will see this avalanche descending on all institutions of higher learning if the prediction that college enrollments will double to 6,400,000 and perhaps even to 9,000,000 by 1970 holds true. This, coupled with a seemingly mounting resistance to being taxed for higher education (or anything else), can result in nothing but a heightening of competition on the part of colleges for the most desirable student. Since the original announcement of the Early Decision Plan by seven leading women’s colleges, a fairly sizable second group of women’s colleges (and several men’s colleges as well) have announced and are currently operating similar plans. This represents an attempt to establish equality of admissions requirements and at the same time gives the colleges an opportunity to grab (by early decision) some of the candidates who might have eventually been acceptable candidates to the aforementioned colleges. What is to prevent, and why shouldn’t, each and every other institution develop a similar plan? We think this will accomplish nothing more than to push all admissions considerations eventually back into the junior year, and, followed to extreme, even earlier in the high-school years.

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There seems to be no admission procedure which holds hope, in itself, for relieving the multiple-application problem in a competitive market. There is hope, however, in its alleviation by mitigating the effects of competition. *First*, there must be an honest acceptance and practice of the philosophy that each institution can serve a very useful purpose in the education of a particular type of applicant. It will be chaotic if all colleges make an effort to get the top academic candidate—chaotic from the standpoint of the admissions grab and chaotic from the standpoint of the welfare of our nation. We cannot hope to maintain our democratic society by educating only an “elite” stratum of our population.

Second, college guidance must be improved. Good guidance which steers applicants away from colleges which are above or below their potential will result in a reduction in the number of applications per college. Some fine examples of good guidance are beginning to emerge. The most recent of these, as an example, is the development of freshman characteristics by colleges, an attempt to guide college counselors into a real understanding of the standards of admission established by each institution. This and similar attempts to spell out the expectancies of an individual are necessary since the colleges have ceased (and we think properly so) to state entrance requirements in terms of subjects and units, thereby virtually making stated entrance requirements alike for all institutions.

Third, we, in the secondary schools must speed along the slow coming of age of counseling, particularly in this instance, as it applies to college admissions. We can encourage the consolidation of small schools into those of a size which can afford to provide this service. And we must insist that these counselors be professional, well-trained individuals who know their colleges, know their students, and have the courage to be professionally honest in matching applicant to college.

When the colleges—without fear of being considered inferior to colleges which educate the academically superior—accept the role in education for which they are best suited, when colleges begin to concentrate on guidance for college, and when high-school counseling comes of age, we will have solved the hot issue of “early decision” plus the issues of “early acceptance,” rolling admissions, ABC screening, reply date agreements, college admission matching plans, fee systems, and the many other plans and procedures that now make college admissions a nightmare to schools and colleges.

Summary of the presentation made by **GEORGE H. FIELDS**

IT APPEARS probable that the pressure of an ever increasing number of applicants for admission, a desire to eliminate as far as possible multiple applications, and an understandable desire to "firm-up" freshman enrollment will result in more extensive use of the Early Decision Plan by colleges and universities. A spread of the movement to other parts of the United States will present most secondary-school administrators with a new problem.

One inevitable result of selecting a college during the junior year instead of near the end of the senior year will be an advance in the dates for aptitude testing. If a preliminary or screening test is to be given, it must be done either in grade 10 or in the early part of grade 11. High-school counselors, most of them with inadequate counseling time, will be forced to advise students with whom they have had little contact. Students will have had little time to establish a high-school record and counseling will, of necessity, be on the basis of tests only; at best, an inadequate basis for recommendation. It seems unlikely that college admissions officers will be satisfied to accept candidates without additional test scores and later evaluations by administrators. The over-all result will be a duplication of activities for high-school administrators and students comparable to that caused by multiple applications and subsequent withdrawal at the college level.

As long as the practice of requiring an early decision is confined to private schools in a limited geographical area, its impact on secondary schools will be minimal. However, other institutions are unlikely to ignore the threat of having top-ranking students irrevocably committed by the end of the junior year. Their competition for a like commitment could result in a further advancement in the time for decision.

Secondary-school administrators are aware of the problems of college admissions officers caused by wholesale applications and inconclusive commitments. They are shared problems. They are equally aware that a decision as important as the choice of a college is difficult enough when made after a maximum amount of counseling based on complete high-school records and with the benefit of maximum student maturity. It is questionable whether it should be made more of a risk by forcing it on a 16-year-old high-school junior and by complicating it with emotional and economic problems.

What seems to be an inevitable increase in the number of schools requiring early decision places an additional responsibility on School-College Relations Committees. It will become increasingly important that high-

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school administrators have a means of placing their problems before college administrators and admissions officers. These committees in the various states can perform a real service to high-school students if they can slow down trends toward increasingly early decision dates and unreasonably high non-refundable entrance deposits.

WHAT ROLE FOR STUDENT ACTIVITIES IN THE NEW EMPHASIS ON QUALITY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION?

CHAIRMAN: *Ralph W. Backman*, Principal, South High School, Salt Lake City, Utah

DISCUSSANTS:

J. L. Brown, Director of Extramural Services, Prairie View A & M College, Prairie View, Texas

C. R. Crakes, Educational Consultant, DeVry Technical Institute, Chicago, Illinois

Summary of the presentation made by R. V. BRAHAM

ONE of the bases for the organization of the junior high school was to offer a wider range of experiences for the pupil. This is expressed in curriculum offerings as well as extracurricular activities. There has been an extensive growth in both over the past few years, with more and more of the so-called extracurricular activities becoming incorporated into the regular curriculum of the school. State organizations have come into being to control and regulate these activities. Investigation and studies have been made to verify the contribution of activities to the community, to the school, and to the pupil, and to disprove the claim that pupils who participate suffer academically.

With the advent of Sputnik, there have come demands for more science, more mathematics, more foreign language, and an elimination of all fads and frills. We should not let this clamor throw us into a "tail spin" and discard what we know to be good programming and adopt a program of "forced" education. Our secondary school, up to a certain age limit, is universal and mandatory. Our system of education is not selective until after we go above an age limit. We have the philosophy that our students are living today and preparing for tomorrow, and not just preparing for tomorrow. We feel that the public school should develop every individual to think and act effectively and creatively now and in the future through

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the mastery—in relationship to his ability—of the skills, knowledge, and appreciation of man's achievement up to the present time.

There is no doubt that all of our secondary schools should be comprehensive in scope and that there should be a constant evaluation of every phase of our education program in order that we may improve on the quality of all educational processes. The entire activity program should not be abandoned. To do this would be as foolish as to require every pupil in the junior high school to take accelerated mathematics, science, and modern foreign language.

A program for the more able pupils should be offered, and they should be expected to do acceptable quality work or be dropped from the program. If we have a flexible dual-track program, and do individual scheduling under the direction of competent deans and counselors, quality education can be expected of those who are able to do superior work. Curtailing or dropping the activity program will not insure quality education.

I do not see how this new emphasis on quality education should have any effect on our activity program. It may reduce the number of activities in which a pupil may participate. The emphasis should be on the course offerings and when they are to be given and to whom; for example, Algebra I in eighth grade, Algebra II in ninth grade, *etc.* rather than the discontinuance of all activities and the stepping up of the entire program for all students.

There must be a continuous evaluation of our activity program as to the educational contribution to the individual pupil or group of pupils, to the service that is rendered the community, and to the public relations derived for the welfare of the school system. I cannot envision a school without athletic programs, musical productions, service clubs, publications, and forensic activities, *etc.* to furnish the individual student an opportunity to excel and earn recognition as a performer and leader. Social behavior patterns are formed by participation. These opportunities cannot be left entirely to outside organizations where social and economic status forms barriers of acceptance or non-acceptance.

The public school is the one organization where all of the pupils of all the people have a better opportunity of meeting on a common ground. Recreation and the pursuit of hobbies is an essential factor in the American way of life. A proper balance must be maintained between curriculum and activities. Certainly the larger part of the pupil's day should be spent in the pursuit of serious intellectual development. In order to prepare properly the pupil of tomorrow, it may be mandatory that we lengthen the school day and year.

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES E. SMITH

IN AN attempt to discuss the role of the student activities program in our secondary schools today, it is necessary that we first identify those experiences to which we refer as student activities. In this discussion, we shall be concerned with those activities which are separate and distinct from the normal classroom procedures as generally associated with the academic, business education, vocational, and general courses. The activities to which we refer are generally classified by educators as extra-curricular or cocurricular and carry no credit toward graduation. It is probable that some activities which are considered as extracurricular in some schools are scheduled for credit in other schools.

The role of the student activities has gone through a series of changes since they first appeared as a tolerated part of the school program. This day of toleration was followed by a period of acceptance on the part of the school people. More recently we have been and may be still in "the-tail-wagging-the-dog" stage. This latter phrase is associated with and responsible for the over-emphasis criticism which some parts of the activity program get today. We are now faced with a fourth phase in the program, that of retreating to a reasonable, acceptable, and worth-while program which is not promoted at the expense of the curriculum.

Regardless of whether we were schooled on the *Seven Cardinal Principles* or the *Ten Imperative Needs of Youth*, we must recognize that the activities program was basically the outgrowth of the need for those experiences which would promote proper use of leisure time. Certainly the leisure time activities of twenty or even ten years ago are quite different than those of today. Just as the curriculum needs constant evaluation and change in light of the ever changing needs of our professions, businesses, and industries, so the cocurricular program needs constant evaluation and change in light of the leisure time activities. Each school program must be evaluated on the basis of the purpose it serves for those students for whom it is operated. This is true for the cocurricular as well as the curricular program. We must then first establish a program which is good in a given situation, and then, of necessity, change the program as varying factors which influence our lives change our methods of living.

A student activity program can range from a variety of activities offered each day of the week to a single activity meeting once a week or less often. The way in which we administer and accomplish the objectives of a good activity program for students differs according to the problems which each one faces in his particular system. A school which transports ninety per cent of its student body cannot organize or administer an activity program on the same basis as the school with few or perhaps no transported stu-

dents. Yet it may be that the former school has greater need for a student activity program than the latter where the students have available to them youth activities organized by civic groups. Similar comparisons might be made with other factors which influence the administering of the program, such as school population, socio-economic conditions, financial status of the school district, *etc.*

The "new emphasis on quality in our secondary schools" has reference to the competition with which we are faced in our scientific race for conquest of outer space. Scientific developments may represent the major factors, but there are many others which influence the constant evaluation of the cocurricular programs. The arguments *pro* and *con* the cocurricular program are as valid today as they were before Sputnik, only the nature of the arguments has changed. Increased leisure time appears to be the trend in the future for people in all walks of life—except school personnel, who will have less leisure time as they develop activity programs to meet this situation.

WHAT ARE SOME WAYS OF IMPROVING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY?

CHAIRMAN: *Ronald E. Brinkley*, Director of Special Education, State Department of Education, Nashville, Tennessee

DISCUSSANTS:

Samuel H. Popper, Associate Professor of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, Minnesota

Roy Lee Roberts, Principal, Leilehua High School and Intermediate School, Wahiawa, Oahu, Hawaii

Summary of the presentation made by CARL L. McCAFFERTY

THE democratic school not only draws upon, but contributes to the community. Such a school cannot hope to maintain a successful program if community resources are not available for instructional purposes, or if the community itself is not open to students and teachers as a work-service laboratory. It then becomes essential that administrators, teachers, and students alike understand how every conference, community survey, field trip, service project, and work experience becomes a venture in public relations. These ventures become vehicles by which our "publics"

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interpret the school and its program to parents and community groups. Every contact which brings commendation to the school's program, policy, or personnel creates a basis for additional appreciation, loyalty, and support. It is, therefore, necessary that extreme effort be extended to be alert continually to all opportunities through which we might positively promote good public relations.

To improve relationships between school and community, many avenues are open and to be successful, four general groups of people must always be considered. These groups are the students themselves, their parents, the public at large, and the personnel of the school. Let's suggest some successful approaches to each of these groups.

Year by year, increased pressures are exerted upon students in the selection of and, in many cases, to the degree of achievement in more academic studies. This being true, it becomes necessary to give students definite guidance in adjusting to these pressures. Much guidance and counseling is sometimes necessary to the building of better student attitudes. The genuine friendliness of the counselor on occasions of interviews with students most always contributes to good school-community relations. The student is made to feel more secure and, in turn, expresses that security in many helpful ways. If the student relies entirely upon books for building concepts, then use books by all means. Make sure, however, that his concepts become meaningful as well as realistic through firsthand experiences. Help the student to begin to formulate his own plans and learn to plan cooperatively with others. Encourage him to be kind, courteous, and friendly at all times and especially when engaged in any way with school activities. This behavior has a definite tie-in with school-community relations.

One of the best ways of securing parental cooperation in this business of developing good school-community relations is involving as many parents as possible in worth-while school-community projects. There is always the PTA. Keep them well informed on the school's program. Make it clear that their children are in good hands. See to it that the faculty is well represented at the PTA meetings and that they volunteer helpful information and do some work if necessary.

The public in general, that is, the part of the community having no children in the school, must not be neglected. After all, it is their school, too. That is why the general public, as well as the parents and students themselves, must be favorably influenced toward the school's program if it is ever to achieve real success.

The general public is often influenced by the reaction and conduct of students while away from school. The students' basic knowledge of fundamental skills, their dress, language, and willingness and capability of discharging their responsibilities, all contribute to our "general public's" relationship to the school.

The school staff and their activities must not be overlooked in finding ways of improving school-community relations. Many of the very important things that improve good school-community feeling begin with the little everyday, common courtesies such as:

1. Appropriate manner of speech and dress
2. Good telephone etiquette practiced at all times
3. A welcome to be extended to school visitors
4. Always express enthusiasm and loyalty for the school's program

Any good school-community relations program must develop open lines of communication. There are many different practices in use for the purpose of keeping the "publics" informed, some of which are:

1. Practice a thorough orientation each year for all members of the faculty.
2. Keep faculty well informed through staff meetings, handbooks, bulletins, and a free exchange of ideas.
3. Keep the non-educational staff well informed through staff meetings, bulletins, handbooks, and school calendar.
4. Keep the "publics" informed through reports to the Board of Education, news letters to parents, speeches to civic clubs, conferences with lay leaders, reporters for newspapers, TV, and radio.
5. Other school media used for public information are: yearbook, Back-to-School night, annual reports, school exhibits, science fairs, plays, talent shows, athletic contests, commencement, and others.

Summary of the presentation made by STANLEY J. MILFORD

COMMUNITY relations have two rare characteristics which too often are not recognized and appreciated by us who are in direct contact with the public so much of our working lives. *First*, community relations are most delicate and fragile; secondly, we have relations between our schools and community whether we like it or not. Whether they are good or not depends in a large degree on the teacher and administrator. Getting back to the first item, perhaps too much emphasis has been spent on personalities involved in community relations and too little on fact. By this we mean a community is often interested in the "what results" more than in the "who results." They would like to know what the student body is accomplishing in the academic department and in the community.

It is time that we as professional people were honest with our communities and admit the weaknesses and the discrepancies of secondary education. We, better than anyone else, know the shortcomings of education. Good community relationships dictate that we keep our public informed of our weakness as well as our strength. Too much of our time as principals is spent in defending what we do, what we have done, and

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what we want to do, rather than devoting our efforts to what needs to be done and what we would like to do in education. In this direction, we might be able to bring the minds of the community in true contact with the problems of education. In our ever expanding education, responsibilities are no longer limited to local problems alone. This could be one of our greatest responsibilities. Community relations are so fragile that they may be high on our esteem one day and, through no fault of our own, at the bottom the next day.

Please recall what Sputnik did to American education in a period of hours. We are now just beginning to recover from this blow. You and I are fully aware of the fact that we are endeavoring to educate all people in the total community; whereas in our Russian counterpart, only the select few are given this opportunity.

Perhaps the *third* need in community relations would be to involve as many people in as great a variety of walks of life as possible in our educational planning. In the future-competitive world, the scope and horizon are too broad for one man or one board or one staff to hope to have all the answers. Therefore, it might be wise to go to the people for solutions to our problems with the hope of securing their support morally, emotionally, and financially, thus making it possible to carry out the program as we all see it. Community relations are so delicate and of so many varieties that they will flourish at one time in an adverse climate and fail and, in fact, contaminate the atmosphere in a healthier environment. Whether the principal likes it or not, he has a responsibility in community relations, and he must accept the position of a majority leader in its success. This could be one of our most important tasks for the welfare of the young people whom we are hoping to assist in their future.

WHAT CONSTITUTES AN ADEQUATE COUNSELING AND GUIDANCE STAFF?

CHAIRMAN: *R. L. Booker*, Coordinator of Secondary Education, County Schools, Mobile, Alabama

DISCUSSANTS:

Peyton Reavis, Principal, Amphitheater High School, Tucson, Arizona

Clyde A. Willman, Principal, Central High School, Fargo, North Dakota

Summary of the presentation made by HELEN B. HILL

MY "HOMEWORK" assignment deals with "adequacy" of the area in which we are interested. In addition to this phase of the program let's spend a few minutes on the "philosophy" involved and the types of personalities and special skills needed to make the program worth while. Much has been written recently revealing the quantity of staff members needed and the areas of responsibility to be covered. It is generally agreed that in order to do the job, a school needs approximately one full-time counselor for every three to four hundred students. It is also agreed that the personnel of the guidance department be responsible for articulation, orientation, survey-analysis, informing, counseling, placement, follow-up, and evaluation. In addition, guidance counselors are supposed to take time out to inspire!

Statistics claim that, within the next ten years, the enrollment in grades nine through twelve will increase 44 per cent. Education must continue to improve. Each and every individual must be better served. All forces must combine to help each student attain his highest standard of potential achievement.

The guidance department is the heart of the framework set up to accomplish this aim. Personnel in this area must be particularly aware of the nature of human growth and development. A survey of needs alone is not enough. The potential must be identified. The guidance department coordinates the aims and objectives of students, teachers, counselors, administrators, and parents—it attempts to give understanding and direction—corrals all energies and heads them off together in the same direction, aiming for the top-most star.

Guidance department activities should be coordinated with all phases of the school program. The counselors, working hand in hand with administrators, should set the stage so that all teachers are ready to accept the contributions and use the services available. Teachers should recognize the guidance department as a source of great help—information

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given helps in the understanding of each student, aids in gearing instruction to the limits of the maximum intellectual ability and interest. The assists given to teachers by "specialists" when emotional, psychological, or physical problems arise hastens the adjustment of a student to the environment of the classroom. He and the teacher together are then more able to attain the goals set for him.

The services rendered by the guidance department must now be more extensive and more varied than ever. Each counselor cannot be *all* to all students assigned to him or her. Many of the common responsibilities must be classified and assigned to those members of the department especially talented in the particular area. Following is a thumb-nail sketch of how one system of 1800 tenth-, eleventh-, and twelfth-grade students tries to do it.

Miss P. . . . , full-time director, working with counselors and administrators, sets up the assignments and together roles are defined. The director herself needs to be calm, dignified, well organized, possessing an excellent background in knowledge and skill learned through experience—well able to tie the strings together and be the "front" for the department. She keeps in close touch by serving as counselor to part of the eleventh- and part of the twelfth-grade girls.

Mr. J. . . . , full-time assistant director, helps in all areas and counsels one half of the eleventh- and twelfth-grade boys. He is the college contact man, visits as many campuses as possible, arranges five to ten visits per week by college admissions officers to the school, and plans the student conferences. He reviews, understands, and summarizes all materials on College Entrance Examination Board Programs, National Merit Scholarship Tests, and so forth.

Mr. C. . . . serves as counselor to the rest of the eleventh- and twelfth-grade boys. He is a specialist in service programs—entrance requirements, appointments to the academies, and N.R.O.T.C. Programs. Miss R. . . . , part-time counselor, counsels twelfth-grade girls from A to C. Mrs. D. . . . , full-time counselor, works with twelfth-grade girls from D to F and eleventh-grade girls from D to K. Mr. K. . . . , spending one third of his day in the guidance department, counsels the eleventh-grade boys from A through E. One extra task he has is keeping the bulletin boards stocked with the multitudinous communications on college opportunities, available scholarships, dates for competitive examinations, and similar information.

The tenth-grade counseling program is carried on in two ways. Small classes are set up one period per week for group guidance. These classes are taught by different members of the guidance department. In addition to teaching the class, the counselor is then responsible for the individual counseling of each student assigned to him or her.

Mr. G. . . . , full-time guidance person, organizes and supervises the group guidance program in addition to teaching seven other group

guidance sections. Miss O. . . . is the director of testing. It is her responsibility to supervise the giving of all group and individual tests. Results are interpreted and set up in an efficient way for all counselors' use. Miss H. . . . spends two-thirds of her day working with the vocational information areas and placement of students in part- or full-time jobs. She counsels all students seeking employment. Mr. A. . . . spends one half of his day as a business education teacher and one half in the guidance department. He is the statistician and record keeper. Mrs. C. . . ., the director of home and school relations, spends about 50 per cent of her time in the senior high school. She visits the homes in the role of social worker and brings back vital information.

The full-time school psychologist, Dr. S. . . ., spends about two thirds of his time with the senior high school and one third with the two junior high schools. He is assisted by a graduate student who is serving as a psychological interne. This particular psychologist serves as coordinator of special services in the program. In addition to his clinical work with referrals, he serves as guide and supervisor of specialized services.

The above is a skeleton sketch of the composite of the guidance personnel with a few of their assignments noted. Much has been left out. Clinical studies, career and college conferences, parent interviews, parent education programs, research studies, the articulation of the senior high school with the junior high and elementary schools, orientation programs, teacher institutes, in-service programs, health services, follow-up studies, and evaluation are just a few of the additional activities required of this department. Time does not permit an elaboration. Suffice it to say it all gets done some way, somehow.

Whether the guidance program is adequate, satisfactory, or superior depends in a large measure on the experience, background, personality, and *dedication* of its counselors. These staff members must be eager to work together under leadership, directly supervised by the administration, to establish aims, objectives, and values: they must spend time identifying and studying the role each is to play. Special talents on the part of each staff member must be put to use so that all members profit. Each guidance person must understand his responsibility to the program so that each student will be helped to live a richer and happier life in our ever changing environment. Each counselor must assist in the understanding and appreciation of our own culture and must guide each student to develop a personal philosophy which will enable him to reach the heights morally, spiritually, socially, and economically—so that each will take his place in the world, living together in peace and happiness.

Summary of the presentation made by CHRISTIAN E. BURCKEL

THE report on what constitutes an adequate counseling and guidance staff hinges on the word "adequate." Pile drivers, sledge hammers, and tack hammers all perform identical functions, as do steam shovels, spades, and trowels. They come in different sizes and shapes and are made of different materials to suit different jobs. Using a steam shovel to plant tulip bulbs would in all probability ruin a garden, and, using a tack hammer in place of a pile driver would be equally inadequate to accomplish an objective.

The first consideration, therefore, is to establish the aims, objectives, or goals that are to be achieved by a counseling and guidance staff, followed by an analysis of the "framework" in which such a staff is to function. This framework consists of the climate in which counseling and guidance is to be performed: the nature of the students; the nature of the community; the number of students to be served; the facilities, tools, and equipment available; the availability and quality of other pupil-personnel services; the financial and moral support afforded the program by government officials, teachers, administrators, parents, and cultural services of the community—to mention only a few of the elements.

The number and types of counselors and guidance personnel could then be established in the light of the stated aims, objectives, or goals of the program, and, in the light of the competence (intelligence, education, and experience) of those chosen to constitute the staff.

Christian E. Burckel is Publisher of the *College Blue Book*, P.O. Box 311, Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York. A complete report of this presentation is available without charge by request to the author.

HOW CAN SUMMER SCHOOLS ENRICH OR ACCELERATE THE EDUCATIONAL PROGRAM OF CAPABLE STUDENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *Russell W. White*, Principal, Senior High School, Watertown, South Dakota

DISCUSSANT:

Eldon L. Carper, Principal, Junior High School, Northbrook, Illinois

PANEL:

William D. Mullin, Principal, Mount Pleasant Township High School, Mount Pleasant, Pennsylvania

Elsie Gibbs, Department of Education, University of Redlands, Redlands, California

O. Meredith Parry, Principal, William Penn Senior High School, York, Pennsylvania

Ward E. Tibbet, Principal, High School, Saginaw, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN J. CONDON

Read by William D. Mullin

IN OUR 34th annual summer session, 3600 pupils were taught by 131 teachers using two senior high schools and one junior high school. Except for the 7th and 8th grades, some 63 per cent of the pupils did advanced work. Five years ago, Improvement in Reading courses were introduced. In this course, an attempt was made to increase the comprehension of what is read, and also to increase the rate or numbers of words read per minute by pupils not reading up to their potential. This past year a course in Reading Skills and Study Habits, for seniors planning to attend college, was offered. Here note taking, reporting, use of and selecting reference material as well as the art of taking an examination were stressed.

Personal typewriting has been offered to seniors for several years. It is a single-term program preparing pupils to write reports and other papers. This next year, we will offer a course in brief hand or alphabetic shorthand, rather than the symbolic type usually taught. At the end of the summer session, a pupil should be able to take accurate notes in a class situation. This is not a secretarial course, but rather one for pupils attending college.

Two years ago an advanced physics course was offered to boys and girls who had IQ's of 120 or better, who were in the upper 10 per cent of their class, and had grades of 85 per cent or better in previous science courses and in English. They needed the recommendation of their principals and were interviewed. Twenty-five were selected. Theirs was a 10-week course,

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but they were permitted to take the New York State Physics Regents examinations along with the other physics students. At the end of their course, they took an examination prepared by the physics department at Syracuse University. Upon passing the Regents examination, they obtained one unit toward high-school graduation. By passing the university examination, they were given six units toward freshman credit in physics. This was approved by both Syracuse University and LeMoyne College. All pupils received credit in both areas. This course was given last year and will be offered again this year.

A full-year course in Russian language was offered in the 1959 summer session. It was well accepted and these pupils were able to continue during the regular school year in second-year Russian.

Two experimental courses in mathematics were presented last summer and their acceptance was sufficient to continue them in 1960.

Mathematical Analysis offered to outstanding mathematics students covered work in symbolic logic, grouping, functions, limits and probability with some statistics. This may be part of the regular twelfth-year mathematics course offered in New York State.

A course in Mathematical Computers for selected juniors and seniors was offered. The use of a No. 650 digital computer was made possible through Syracuse University. The plan of study did not require pupils to be competent in the operation of computers, but rather to give them an understanding of the basic mathematics involved in the setting up of their problems. These courses will be continued again in 1960.

For senior English pupils with ability and interest in writing, we will offer a course in Creative Writing. These pupils will need to have done extensive reading and will need recommendations from their teachers of English.

Pupils who have maintained grades of 85 per cent or better in certain subject areas may take a full year of work during the summer session. These are biology, chemistry, tenth-year mathematics (geometry), second-year French and third-year English, in addition to the subjects listed above.

Summary of the presentation made by ELSIE FRANCES GIBBS

SUMMER schools for secondary students are no innovation in San Bernardino, California, for they have been held annually since 1943. Gradually the enrollment has shifted from weak students who are trying to remove deficiencies to more capable learners who come to enrich their

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secondary experiences. Summer schools afford opportunities for more capable learners (1) to fulfill requirements for graduation, thus permitting them to enrich their regular yearly schedule with chosen electives or to participate more effectively in student activities; (2) to supplement their regular work by accelerated summer classes in fields of their major interest; (3) to choose electives permitting broadening of their interests; (4) to earn extra credits in a program which is sufficiently strong that they may enter a university with honors on admission and in many cases advanced standing; and (5) to permit strengthening of strong students in areas that are their weakest so that they may progress through the years with superior accomplishment in all subject areas.

Although all of these objectives are worthy, classes offering the most opportunity for experimentation are those with materials and activities which are accelerated and do not duplicate the regular offerings of the school. These yield highly satisfactory results to the bright students who are enrolled, the creative teachers who instruct them, the interested administrators who develop the program, and the intelligent parents who encourage their sons and daughters to take advantage of many worthwhile learning experiences. Each class has been established as a result of group thinking of interested teachers, students, and administrators. In some subject areas, community representatives are included. Careful evaluations made at the close of the session by all who participated in the classes and their planning have established a program that incorporates more and more features in more departments and at more grade levels each year. Creative teachers profit from previous experimentation but are not shackled by it.

Recognizing the increased vocational opportunities in scientific fields, the mathematics-science departments of the senior high schools cooperated with administrators, local industries and laboratories, and universities in this area in developing a summer course to show students by direct contact the types of occupations available by giving them the opportunity to observe and work with scientists, mathematicians, engineers, and technicians. Students completed mathematics and science projects which called for research in college science libraries. The teachers must be resourceful, imaginative, up-to-date in their knowledge of scientific and industrial advancement, practical in their approach, acceptable to top-level management in industry as well as college librarians and science professors. They must have a proven interest in and understanding of bright young adolescents and be able to inspire, challenge, and lead them to do the best work of which they are capable. To find such teachers and students is not an easy assignment. A small joint committee of secondary-school and college educators and representatives of industry served as a steering committee for planning, organizing, and evaluating the program with the help from time to time of a larger group which included representatives of all firms participating. The program roughly includes two

weeks of classwork developing science projects and reports, evaluations, mathematics concepts and enrichment materials; two weeks of guided tours of industry with emphasis on vocation; a week of college lectures and research related to science in industry with another week for research in college libraries; and a week of industrial work experience in one of the cooperating industries or laboratories. Industries chosen represent a wide cross-section of the general area. Colleges participating include University of Redlands, University of California at Riverside, and Claremont Colleges.

English is another area in which advanced work has been featured in summer school for hand-picked students with high potential. The primary objective was to use significant books to stimulate thought, to nurture evaluative skills, and to develop the ability to make wise decisions. Under the guidance of a skilled teacher, they hoped that the course would help them to comprehend better, to discuss problems more maturely, to criticize wisely, and to analyze and interpret the ideas of others. Materials permitted students to make individual choice of mature books. Flexibility has been stressed. Teachers have included field trips, opera, and speakers from community or nearby universities. Subject content has varied from summer to summer and from teacher to teacher, but all have emphasized the ability to read widely in mature writings and to express their own analyses and reactions in writing that reflects mature thinking, correctly written and interestingly expressed. Papers from these classes have reached higher standards than those found in many sophomore English classes at the college level.

Special accelerated classes in modern languages were initiated in 1959 as part of a coordinated program of early language instruction beginning in grade seven. Teachers utilized the conversational approach. With the use of the modern language laboratories which were installed for use in the regular sessions in 1959-60, students are moving into areas of much greater language proficiency.

Summer art classes were filled with students with demonstrated art abilities and other students of high, proven academic abilities and an interest in art but with limited training. Teachers chosen had already demonstrated through many highly successful experiences the ability to draw creative, imaginative work from students. The inclusion of the highly academic students was at the teachers' request. Several of these found a new world opening to them, a world that has enticed them to rearrange their regular yearly schedule so that they may continue to explore it. With the students' bright minds and the teachers' ability to fill in voids in their background, they are now completing individual projects that are being submitted to the Scholastic Art contest to represent the city schools. Competition is keen and this is indeed an honor for any student.

Summer schools offer an opportunity to draw from the entire system the most imaginative, skilled teachers who will work together with carefully

selected students and pool their interests and findings which will be shared throughout the entire system during the regular school year.

Only students interested in utilizing their time profitably attend summer school. Disciplinary problems are practically nonexistent. The shortened school day (four hours) releases teachers before they are too exhausted to think creatively. The lessened workload permits more free time for preparation and evaluation. San Bernardino has a lengthened school year for those students who wish to take advantage of it. Teachers who put in the extra weeks of service are reimbursed for it. Through experimentation during the summer, regular courses of the academic year are enriched. New materials are incorporated, new techniques are developed. These are some of the hard-earned successes. What are some of the greatest difficulties? *First*, finding people with fresh ideas that are practical and challenging and, *second*, finding time to get them together to share ideas and to develop an integrated program, not only for the summer but also as part of a total educational pattern.

Summary of the presentation made by O. MEREDITH PARRY

THE operation of the program at William Penn Senior High School may be briefly stated as follows: in a city of 72,000, the program is concentrated in one comprehensive senior high school. All courses offered during the regular academic year are offered on demand, plus courses offered in grade nine in junior high schools for those needing make-up or changed areas of emphasis in senior high school and enrichment courses. There is no graduation program and no tuition charge for resident pupils of the district. The session is eight weeks in length, five days weekly. Days missed are made up in afternoon sessions. The day begins at 8:00 A.M. (due to hot weather) and closes at 12:30 P.M. with five-minute breaks between first and second and third and fourth hours. A fifteen-minute break is given between periods two and three. Students spend two consecutive periods in semester courses; four consecutive periods in full-year courses, carrying a maximum of two different courses (*i.e.* semester courses). The course content covered is the equivalent to that studied during the school year. Most teachers find they cover much more. There are no interruptions for extracurricular activities or assemblies. State law is met by flag pledge and Bible reading in the first class of the day which is five minutes longer than other periods. There is no pretense that any benefits other than scholastic are planned or expected. Teachers are from the regular staff with an occasional teacher or resource person from outside. Teachers are rotated on a three-year basis to allow for

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travel, industrial experience, and growth. By Pennsylvania law, they are reimbursed *pro rata* on the basis of their step on the salary schedule for the preceding school year. The popularity of the summer session is shown by the 1959 summer enrollment of 717 city students, from a senior high-school population of 2,100 and 124 tuition students.

Why Do We Operate a Summer School Program?

First, it is in accord with and broadens the very purpose for which the school system was created. Students avail themselves of this profitable experience and still have a full month of vacation. Existing plant is fully utilized with little additional operating cost. With proper school-year maintenance, the free month is sufficient for rehabilitation and cleaning of the plant. Staff is available and willing to carry a rewarding program while earning additional pay. The unit cost per credit is much less than for the same units during normal school terms. Gifted students may accelerate programs for the purpose of taking Advanced Placement or College Level courses in the upper years. Some accelerate toward graduation. This we allow, but discourage in most instances through counseling. Increasingly, students are availing themselves of the opportunity to enrich and supplement their regular school programs. With the mandated program in Pennsylvania requiring more time for general education, students find themselves unable to include all the classes and activities they deem profitable and necessary into a regular high-school schedule. The summer program provides adequate facilities and staff so courses delimited or eliminated by mandate may be included. The community appreciates the service rendered by the program. In York it is proving a sensible and rich public relations instrument. Most of the possible values ascribed by educational writers to year-round schools are intrinsic in this program.

Who Takes Advantage of Such Offerings?

The summer school enrollment falls into three roughly equal classifications. Enrichment and supplementary functions are the reason about thirty-three per cent give for taking the courses offered. About thirty per cent accelerate their regular program by this method so they may study Advanced Placement or College Level courses in the eleventh and twelfth grades; *i.e.*, advanced physics, mathematics, or chemistry, *etc.* The last group comes to make up credits lost through courses failed, illness, or absence, or because their families were migratory or traveled abroad. In the area of enrichment and supplemental study and acceleration, the desire is usually for advanced courses for gifted or talented students; additional foreign language opportunity; additional courses such as art, music, drama, science, shop, and "personal use" typewriting which do not fit into busy regular schedules. Many, like stenographic or distributive education students or co-ops, want to clear the way for part-time work in their senior year. Student council members, library assistants,

publication editors, and others desire time for leadership activities and service opportunities in their last school year. A few students, hoping for assignment to foreign exchange programs, wish to protect their college entrance status and keep required credits in a "safe" status. There are many of our fine young people who find vacations boring without something useful to occupy their time.

What Is the Staff Reaction?

Teachers express amazement with the pleasure experienced. They find themselves teaching serious-minded students who are present by choice and for a particular purpose. Teachers find uninterrupted long-span periods of work-study-discussion enabling them to cover ground rapidly with most favorable results. Testing bears this out. Teachers of laboratory courses are especially appreciative of the four-hour time span, as are shop and art instructors. Field trips fit into this program easily and well. The absence of students having neither interest nor purpose seems to make serious attitudes contagious. Results tend to prove that concentration on one or two subjects has obvious advantages.

Popularity and growth of the program have increased greatly in the past five years. The program is ten years old. The aim is to keep the program on a relatively simple, easily administrated, inexpensive basis. *This aim is recommended for those initiating a program.* Additions have been on the basis of demand; those lacking demand are eliminated quickly. Probably the best illustration of a successful addition is a machine-shop course developed to meet the needs of future engineers. This course could not normally fit into a pre-engineering program. These boys are in a class by themselves. Some have been excused from over-crowded college courses. Others even earn money assisting college instructors in these same over-crowded courses. One boy has replaced a waiting job in a college dining hall with income from this work.

It is easily possible that the time is ripe for a much enriched summer educational program and that our constituents will welcome such an extension. This program makes "common sense" in the light of cold, hard facts of our economic life.

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Summary of the presentation made by WARD E. TIBBET

SUMMER school was started in Saginaw in 1953. It was started because we found that for several years many of our seniors were going to a neighboring town to work off a required course in Government and Economics. When we finally came to the conclusion that a summer school was the answer, it was set up with this thought in mind: It was to be used to make up work which the student had failed or missed; it was to be used to enrich a student's high-school course. When we announced the summer school for the summer of 1953, we stressed the second part rather than the first. I believe that this is the key to the starting of a successful summer school.

Our first summer school attendance was 249. In seven years, this has grown to over 1100. It has also grown to the point where it is no longer housed in one school centrally located, but has been divided between two schools.

To go to summer school has become "the thing to do." We find that, in Saginaw, summer school teaching is the finest teaching experience because so many of the people who go are those who are working off a required subject in order that they may enrich their programs during the ensuing year. Most of the students in summer school are above average in ability.

The fee has been set at \$15 per half-unit, and the following courses have been offered: English 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6; Algebra 1, 2, 3, 4; Geometry 1, 2, 3; Trigonometry; General Mathematics; Typing; U. S. History 1, 2; Economics; Government; Biology 1, 2; and Geography 1, 2.

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CAN CONDUCT CODES FAVORABLY AFFECT STUDENT ATTITUDES AND BEHAVIOR?

CHAIRMAN: *R. B. Norman*, Principal, High School, Amarillo, Texas

DISCUSSANTS:

H. D. Karns, Principal, Junior High School, Junction City, Kansas

Paul Seydel, Principal, High School and Junior College, Fort Dodge, Iowa

Summary of the presentation made by JOHN P. LOZO

CODES in themselves have little value, I maintain, in influencing conduct. Their values lie in how they have been evolved and promoted. Perhaps it is somewhat trite, and maybe a bit presumptuous, to remind principals of the nature of the pupils with whom they daily deal. Nevertheless, for the sake of clarity and the points I want to make, I shall call attention to five characteristics of adolescents: teenagers are ardent conformers to the *mores* of their peers, particularly in dress, behavior, and attitudes; teenagers want a place in the sun; they want to follow peer leadership; they have a sense of security that stems from acceptance by a peer group; they are idealists.

Now, let's look at some of the operational principles available to secondary-school administrators that bear upon the successful establishment or adoption of conduct codes that favorably affect student behavior. One of the first things a principal must do is to establish ways and means of preserving the desirable heritage of the past. One of the most important parts of our heritage is democracy. "Democracy," says Dewey, "is a way of life controlled by a working faith in the possibilities of human nature. . . . This faith may be enacted into statutes, but it is only on paper unless it is put in force in the attitudes which human beings display to one another in all the incidents and relations to daily life." The principal must establish a climate of democracy in which truth may grow and flourish. He must establish rapport between himself and his associates—pupils, teachers, administrators, and the public. If student council is the channel through which ideas are advanced, its faculty sponsor should be one of the most personable and understanding individuals on the staff.

Admittedly, there are many ways of creating conduct codes. I was very much impressed last fall by the dress and attitude of the 800 pupils I addressed at an assembly at Metuchen High School in New Jersey. Later, in talking with Principal William Nunan, I asked him how this wholesome conduct and appearance had come into being. "It is our conviction," he said, "although not scientifically proved, that young men and women reflect attitudes in their dress. We also believe that the converse is true.

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If our assumption is correct, then this can be a real aid to society. We are particularly interested in applying this to our high school. Our first assembly each year is used to explain the rules of the school and the reason for their existence. We keep these to a minimum and conclude with the statement that we are not attempting to cover every eventuality, but rather to present a pattern that reflects the type of ladies and gentlemen who should represent Metuchen High School. We asked that coats and ties be worn by the boys and good dresses be worn by the girls at assemblies. At our next assembly, we had about 85 per cent cooperation and thereafter about 90 per cent. We do not feel that dress in itself is significant, but rather that it is a reflection of an attitude."

Principal William Lindstrom of the New Brunswick, New Jersey, High School worked out with representative pupils a code of dress that was not only applauded by the pupils, but was also enthusiastically lauded by the PTA, who welcomed the cooperation of the school in getting their children to dress properly!

Sometime after the successful adoption of the Code of Dress, student council drew up an even more successful code of citizenship standards. Following are the standards in brief as the pupils wrote them.

1. To re-affirm our belief that "Honesty is the best policy"
2. To create in the classroom a desirable atmosphere for learning
3. To avoid congestion and promote safety in the halls
4. To maintain an orderly cafeteria
5. To show our appreciation for performances in assemblies
6. To preserve the attractive appearance of our school and grounds
7. To uphold the good name of NBHS at extracurricular activities

At Plainfield, New Jersey, High School where Warren Held is principal, an informal dress code stemmed from the custom the members of the football squad had of dressing up on the days preceding games. The idea caught on and now numerous other students come to school daily in better attire than they had worn previously. Mr. Held said that his pupils do not want a conduct code. Pupil leaders claim that they want to do the right things on their own initiative and need no code to force them into line.

On the other hand, student council feels that a few unthinking pupil car drivers are bringing their school into disrepute, and so have instituted a safety committee with a court of their own to bring to terms pupils who race cars in the streets and in other ways jeopardize the safety of all.

The foregoing illustrations from three fairly typical New Jersey high schools show how an understanding of the nature of pupils can be utilized by astute principals to create and foster desirable attitudes and behavior among their students. Conduct codes, as can be seen from these differing situations, need not necessarily be spelled out; it is the effectiveness of them that counts. It is not the code that matters; it is the spirit that recognizes the need for one, the cooperation of all in developing one, and the earnest, consistent desire to keep it working democratically over the years.

Summary of the presentation made by W. S. MILBURN

I TAKE the position that the right answer to the question posed in the topic of discussion is affirmative, provided the codes are so formulated and so used that they function in the lives of the students. It is these provisions that I shall discuss briefly and, in doing so I make no claim that conduct codes are a cure-all or the only means by which favorable student conduct can be attained. I offer them simply as suggestions for making codes more effective.

Three weaknesses, apparent in varying degrees in most codes, must be eliminated or remedied as much as possible if the codes are to serve their purpose effectively. Conduct codes in many instances have been inherited and seemingly have been considered sacred. As the result, they have grown trite over the years and inoperative in the school. I am not advocating that we abandon the moral principles that were considered safe moorings for pupil behavior in the past, but that we should bring them up to date and state them in modern terms to make them more easily understood and more acceptable to our students. Even the King James version of the Bible has been put into fairly modern language. Items which are no longer pertinent to present day use should be eliminated entirely.

Another defect in conduct codes is that those measures intended to inhibit undesirable conduct and attitudes have, in general, been thou-shalt-nots which have tended to invite resistance from the freedom-craving American youth. We should not decry inhibitions for they are as necessary to the educational process today as they ever were and the lack of them among our youth is a matter of grave concern to the public. Pat Boone, the TV star entertainer, speaking to high-school editors at a workshop in New York last November, summed up the matter by stating that he attributed the lowering of our moral standards to the increased freedom which young people begin to have so early in life and the decrease in supervision. In other words, the pupils were being turned loose too soon with too little guidance.

Stating codes in terms of positive credos, insofar as is possible, may serve to overcome the natural objections to inhibitions.

The third weakness in conduct codes is the common assumption that they could be and should be enforced by school authority. This belief has, in my opinion, done more to vitiate codes than any other factor. Codes of behavior, in the main, are not enforceable by authority, and the degree to which they are accepted and self-enforced by the students themselves is the measure of their effectiveness. To get the greatest degree of acceptance and self-enforcement of codes, we should give pupils a large measure of participation and freedom in formulating them. They have

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the understanding and ability to do it, and under proper guidance they will. Let me give one example.

A committee of top-notch students in a certain school in a large city in Texas, determined to do something about the conduct of a group of hoodlums in their school, wrote and adopted a code of conduct for all students in their school. They then organized themselves into an enforcement unit to see that *all* students obeyed the code. That school, once known as a haven for hoodlums, is now a near-model school.

Inspired by the achievement in that Texas school, just last semester a group of student leaders in the school where I work met with me and a few teachers to discuss ways of making our 1200 "downtown" students aware of the significance of conduct codes and to decide upon ways to enforce them. That meeting, which was their idea, will be followed by others for the purpose of laying the groundwork for improvements next fall.

I do not want to leave the impression that putting a conduct code into use is a one-shot deal. It is not enough to draw up codes and then sit back and hope for favorable results. They must be constantly restated, re-illustrated, and given new interpretation to keep them fresh and meaningful to the students. This can be done through assemblies, youth workshops, forums, and discussion groups.

In our own city and county, consisting of approximately forty public secondary schools, we have found it helpful to bring to our assemblies outstanding citizens of our community to talk on matters pertaining to student conduct and attitudes. Because of the stature and prestige of these civic speakers and because they bring fresh viewpoints and illustrations from actual life experiences, they underwrite and undergird in a new and modern way those codes of conduct which teachers and principals try to instill.

We have also used in our local situation a forum which we call "Youth Speaks." It brings together, for a full day, representatives from each of the senior high schools to discuss topics of the students' choice. It is revealing that they seldom discuss such idealistic topics as "Hitch your wagon to a star." In the main they discuss such grassroots problems as dress, speech, boy-girl relationships, lying, cheating, and other practical aspects of conduct.

The argument may be raised that if the formulating and enforcement of codes of conduct are left to the students themselves, only those students whose conduct is exemplary would abide by the codes, while the unsocial hoodlums would shrug them off and go their non-conforming way. But the matter is not that simple because most students are neither perfect nor hoodlums. They are somewhere in between, in the formative stage, open minded, and inclined to be idealistic. There lies the fertile field for codes to take root, grow, and yield fruit.

HOW CAN BETTER STAFF UTILIZATION HELP TO IMPROVE SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS?

CHAIRMAN: *Glenn F. Varner*, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary

Summary of the presentation made by RALPH BOHRSON

CERTAIN small high schools in Colorado have become a testing ground for an exciting new approach in making effective use of human potential. Teachers are making better use of their ever-limited time, and students are taking some of the same advanced courses which formerly were reserved for their city cousins. The whole program, entitled *The Rocky Mountain Area Project for Small High Schools* (RMAP), is being coordinated by the Colorado State Department of Education with a grant from the Ford Foundation's Fund for the Advancement of Education. It is not related to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals' Staff Utilization Project, however.

The Rocky Mountain Area Project, which suggests that the small school employ the strengths of smallness in order to overcome the problems of isolation, has been in existence now for nearly three years. During that time, the Colorado State Department has advertised it as an activity which complements the operations of district organization. High quality, however, is not automatic merely because the district boundaries are changed. Other measures must be taken to assist the necessarily existent small school to offer better instruction. Consistent with this idea, Project personnel have explored two major areas:

1. INTRA-CLASS GROUPING AND INDIVIDUALIZED INSTRUCTION

Large schools often group students through necessity. In the Rocky Mountain Area Project, teachers are exploring teaching techniques which apply chiefly to small groups and to individual students. This, then, makes it possible for the small school to make stronger use of its unusually low student-teacher ratio.

2. IMPROVEMENT OF SCHEDULING PROCEDURES

The extended (or 70-minute) period, without scheduled study halls, has been found to help provide added flexibility for the Rocky Mountain Area Project schools. The teacher in charge of the subject can plan that

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a portion of each class period be given to supervised study. This arrangement, however, is not an automatic quality mechanism. We have found that strong support must be given through the following devices:

A. Multiple Class Teaching

With this technique, the teacher who formerly taught certain related subjects such as Algebra I and Algebra II in separate periods, can schedule them together, preferably in the same room. With some adjustments in his class presentations, the teacher can do a highly skilled job of instruction. He must rely upon student initiative, some self-starting materials and devices, and his own self-restraint in lecturing for a shorter portion of each class period. Sometimes he lectures or instructs *via* the tape recorder for one or two periods each week.

B. Team Teaching Through Use of the Science Film Series

Dr. Harvey White in Physics and Dr. John Baxter in Chemistry can deliver a 30-minute lecture on 16mm film and, for the remaining 40 minutes of time, the local classroom teacher can provide follow-up activities, such as individualized lab experiments, assistance in problem solution, special demonstrations, help on specific questions, *etc.* Thus he can concentrate on the individual needs of his students and allow the film teacher to handle the lecture chores.

C. The Enriched Correspondence Course

If a teacher can use, as a central focal point, the assignments, readings, and tests as provided by University developed high-school correspondence courses, he can then spend the time thereby saved to provide individual enrichment for his students. The courses can be used for one student, single classes, multiple classes, or as resource materials.

D. The Cooperative Youth Seminar in Ideas

Through joint action, several schools of an area can arrange periodic (*i.e.*, once a week, twice a month, *etc.*) two-hour guest lectures and seminar sessions, which can be designed to meet the interests and needs of the 15 per cent of the academically talented students. Limited numbers of teaching personnel, inadequate finances, and crowded schedules frequently discourage small high schools from providing a coordinated program for these youngsters.

SOME TENTATIVE CONCLUSIONS

We have not confined our explorations only to the above areas. Incidental action research has been performed with varying-length class periods, teacher aides, student aides to teachers, teacher training for small schools, and uses of some technical equipment as helps for the teacher. The most extensive RMAP experience, however, has been gained in the areas of teaching methodology, and about those aspects we can

draw the following tentative conclusions as they apply to small high schools:

a. *Multiple class teaching is feasible for use in certain subjects.* There is evidence to show that the time of an able and well-qualified teacher may be employed more effectively through use of this scheduling procedure. More study is needed to determine which subject areas are best suited to this approach.

b. *Use of filmed courses (i.e., Chemistry and Physics Series) is practical if the school personnel accept the teach-teaching concept.* The teaching films cannot, at this time, be recommended as a substitute for a live teacher, nor are they adequate replacement for the motivation developed through well-planned lab experiences. Cost comparisons and related information are not yet conclusive.

c. *The Cooperative Youth Seminar in Ideas is valuable for the small high school which cannot, by itself, provide separate programs to challenge its academically talented and gifted students.* Limited experience indicates that one person must have coordinating responsibility for all schools involved. In the winter months, as one would expect, distance is a major factor influencing participation of students.

The Rocky Mountain Area Project, from its inception, has been designed to demonstrate feasibility of the modified techniques which have been described. It is not an attempt to determine present status of rural education; however, in opening the lid, a whole covey of attendant problems leaped out. We need to consider quite extensively the challenges of guidance services, supervision, shared services, financial structure, criteria for existence, and needed legislation as they apply to the problems of small schools.

Summary of the presentation made by LEE D. PIGOTT

BEECHER High School in the northeastern part of Illinois has just completed an experimental study. The complete description of the study done by them can be found in issues of the NASSP BULLETIN for January 1958-59-60. The last report was written by Edith Grothberg, Winifred Metzler, Alfred Pirtle, and George Weigel. I will quote *verbatim* from this report.

After three years of study this group wrote: "The day of judgment is at hand! Beecher terminates its experimental program and must stand the test of evaluation!" They look back in review to see what changes were made because of the experiment and to report what took place in different stages of the work. As they looked back, they saw clearly some of their problems. The staff had given time, talent, and energy willingly. Sometimes enthusiasm and success were at the top; at other times failure came

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to the front. Regardless of failure or success, things in the school did change. They list some of the changes and the number of them made by the faculty:

1. Changes in method of teaching by nine teachers—more visual aids—more use of the library—teacher cadets—students aids, *etc.*
2. Changes made in curriculum work—greater use of library—organizing units around special subjects, *etc.*
3. Eight teachers are making other changes—more careful guidance—better planning—new attitude toward change, *etc.*
4. Thirteen teachers learned new things about teaching—every one learned from the experimental program.

The experimentation of the first two years became a part of the regular school program. Improvement continued to appear in the area of tapes, records, reading machines, student aids, *etc.* In fact, the reading program ceased to be experimental. It was so successful that it was accepted as a necessary part of the curriculum. The business education department's experience with tape is to be continued to see if more improvement can be made of its use.

The study of the school library emphasizes: (1) improvement in material collections for the library; (2) in-service instruction for acting librarian; (3) continuation of improvement in library services to faculty and students; (4) continuation of new titles for library (568 were added); (5) magazines are now received on a yearly basis, saved and filed; (6) pamphlet collection is well balanced; and (7) library is in use to 75 per cent of its capacity for most periods. Ideally, each school should have a trained librarian, but many small high schools are not able to find or employ one. It is believed that the experimental study at Beecher has successfully shown that, until a qualified librarian can be secured, a non-certificated person working under the direction and guidance of a person from the library training department of an accredited university can render much worth-while library service to the small high school.

Guidance services were developed through consultant service. The group briefly examined the guidance services available to students and found improvement could be made. The committee took the following steps to make improvement. A presentation of the *need for advantages from* and the *purposes* of a guidance program was made at a general faculty meeting. Each faculty member was regarded as a potential guidance worker.

In the approach to a solution of the inventory services, it was found that the facilities were adequate, but that some better method of bringing the information together was needed. The committee decided to get commercially prepared cumulative record folders. Within a few weeks, with the help of the faculty and clerical assistance, the folders were ready for use.

The information available for students in occupations-education-personal service was brought together and placed in the library. The entire faculty was made to realize where the material was located. Discussions were held on how the materials could be used in classroom work.

The counseling services were considered by the faculty, administration, and consultants. It was decided that those members of the faculty who wished to become counselors, and add this as additional load, be given the opportunity to do so. Four teachers were chosen from those who volunteered. One period a day was given to counseling with a pupil load of about 30. In the final months of the school year, each student in school was interviewed at least once by one of the counselors.

Morale of the school faculty before and after the staff utilization project loomed large in the evaluation of the success of the experiment. What changes occurred in morale, and did the experimental program influence it noticeably? At the *beginning* and at the *end* of the project, the teachers were asked to: (1) "List those things you feel are *good* about your position, and (2) list those things which you *do not like* about it." Factors which the members of the faculty regarded as favorable before and after the project were:

1. Cooperative, friendly, interested faculty
2. Helpful, supportive, friendly administration
3. Interested, cooperative community
4. Satisfactory location and size of the school
5. Clean, pleasant, well-maintained plant
6. Adequate teaching materials

There was a new factor which appeared in the second questionnaire. The faculty found these curricular changes desirable:

1. Opportunity to experiment
2. Freedom to reorganize units of instruction
3. Enrichment program approved
4. New curricular added

The faculty developed, as a result of the experimental experience, a new attitude toward curricular change and indeed, toward curriculum. Making changes, experimenting with curriculum became challenging and fun. Greater self-confidence seemed to promote more willingness to make curricular changes and the rewards were obviously pleasant.

The staff clearly developed critical and evaluative skills during the year of the project. No teacher has remained immune to the effects of the experimental program and one suspects that its ending is seen with considerable sense of loss. It has been motivating. It has drawn people together. It has been fun. We will all miss it.

HOW CAN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PROVIDE QUALITY EDUCATION FOR THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *L. R. Palmer*, Principal, Deephaven Junior High School, Excelsior, Minnesota

DISCUSSANTS:

G. Howard Schofstal, Principal, Junior High School, Annapolis, Maryland

Frank L. Williams, Supervising Principal, High Schools, Hot Springs, Arkansas

PANEL:

Clarence A. Brock, Supervisor of Secondary Schools, State Department of Education, Charleston, West Virginia

Fred H. Huff, Principal, Everglade Junior High School, Fort Lauderdale, Florida

Arthur W. Mastin, Principal, Horace Mann Intermediate School, Wichita, Kansas

M. Edward Northam, Principal, Huntingdon Junior High School, Abington, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by CLARENCE A. BROCK

QUALITY education for the academically talented student in the junior high school must be a part of a program that goes through his entire educational life. We have seen the tragedy of a student being built up and then let down; an elementary school that did a good job of grouping and ability level teaching and then the junior high school not taking advantage of the opportunity to keep the talented boy or girl moving forward. The same condition sometimes exists between the junior and the senior high school. Many colleges are doing a better job than they once did in taking care of the accelerated student with their Advanced Placement programs. However, we all know of academically talented youth that lose the challenge as they start their college experience.

There is a definite need for closer articulation between all segments of the educational program if our academically talented youth are to be served. That is to say, a close coordination between the elementary, the junior, the senior high schools, and the colleges is needed. Attendance area organization with teachers from the elementary, the junior, and the senior schools meeting and working together on curriculum problems, plus complete cumulative individual records, can help close the gap that so often breaks the chain of sequence among schools.

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The identification of the academically talented is one that must be faced with a great deal of wisdom. The identification criteria must show a full picture of the potential abilities of each student involved. A composite of group tests, schools marks, and teacher judgment has proved to work best in selecting the individuals for the honors program. There is some evidence that there is an over-use of objective tests. Surely mental ability and achievement tests can help us sort out the girl or boy with the gifted mind. We must beware of the over-dependence on objective tests to the exclusion of less tangible evidence such as the attitudes of the student. The achievement drive, the desire to excel, plus self-reliance and self-confidence, can sometimes outweigh other factors. If test results are used to the exclusion of—for example, teacher judgment—many mistakes may be made. There is a possibility that human resources may be wasted because a testing program cannot do a complete job of evaluation.

The two most used ways of programming for the academically talented in the junior high school are the lateral extension plan and the acceleration method. The question is not so much which plan is used; it is rather, have the risks been taken out? If we accelerate and leave gaps in the program, if we enrich and spend a disproportioned amount of our time and other resources on the exceptional few at the expense of the less fortunate many, if we group homogeneously and not safeguard the values of an interwoven community of young people, we are missing our aim. Any plan used must be rich enough in materials to challenge and stimulate, adaptable enough to make it possible for its participants to withdraw, and those not in to enter during the school year.

We cannot over-emphasize the importance of public relations in connection with an academically talented student program. Parent and family understanding and cooperation are vital to its success. The student's family has a definite role to play in furnishing the achievement motivation. One of the risks encountered is the possibility of creating an egoistic or snobbish situation which cannot be tolerated in our way of life. The tendency for families of the higher socio-economic level to influence the selection of the students for the honors program cannot be ignored. We can expect environment to affect the potential of a boy or girl, but there is no excuse to let influence influence us. The program must be sufficiently culture free so that the economically inferior will stand an equal chance with the economically superior.

The real germ of the problem lies in the services that can be given to the students involved in the program. This includes counseling, library, and teaching services that reach beyond the ordinary. The personnel involved in making quality education possible for the academically talented junior high-school youth must be more than qualified and willing. They must be excited about the opportunity to make a real contribution to the youth and to society which will reap the lasting benefits.

The educational guidance so important in the identification phase of the activity cannot stop there. Constant work with the student and his parents is necessary. The continuing educational plans for the student including his college needs are a vital part of the work of the counselor. The growing college scholarship possibilities now available to the academically talented is a key that unlocks to full advantage for this program. Guidance toward college must not wait until the student reaches senior high school.

Educational materials cannot be neglected. The academically talented youth must have these services tailored to his needs. The library or materials center has an important role in making sure that the traditional ceiling of educational materials does not limit the individual's activities.

The teachers assigned to the academically talented are the real crux of the problem. There seems to be agreement that these teachers must be well above average in intelligence and preparation, but, more important, that they should have a keen interest in youth; that they be tolerant to new and modern ideas and materials; that they be freeing and facilitating with students in that they encourage students to proceed on their own with the teachers acting as catalytic agents to educational action.

Summary of the presentation made by DAVE FITZPATRICK

Read by Fred H. Huff

THE faculty of Parkway Junior High School has accepted the challenge and agreed that, in the framework of a comprehensive junior high-school program, we must provide for the academically talented student, as well as offer a basic education program covering a wide field of exploration for all students. The staff designed this accelerated program to help each boy and girl discover and develop the ability he or she possesses. We stressed the "over-all" development of the pupil in the areas of social and emotional adjustment as well as in the academic areas. The faculty decided that students would be grouped together in the major academic areas, but spend part of the day with other pupils in non-academic curriculum. Recognizing at this point that our program would be ineffective unless continued through high school, we worked cooperatively with Stranahan Senior High School to develop a full six-year program.

We immediately identified the common problems such as: (1) earliest identification of the talented youngsters, (2) criteria to be used in identification, (3) selection of teachers, (4) agreement on "over-all plan," (5) student interview and preparation, (6) parent information conferences, and (7) implementation of the program.

Dave Fitzpatrick is Principal of the Parkway Junior High School, 3600 N.W. 5th Court, Fort Lauderdale, Florida.

Working in close relationship with eight elementary feeder schools, we identified and selected the academically talented students. A committee screened 650 students on the basis of performance, test results, sixth-grade teacher recommendations, IQ's, and reading-grade levels. The faculty committee approved 60 candidates to enter the seventh-grade "Pilot Program." The principal and the guidance director interviewed parents of all tentative participants to exchange information regarding the pupil's ability, to receive approval for the student to enter the program, to explain that a periodical progress report by both parent and school would be necessary, and to urge the parents to take advantage of the school's "open-door policy."

During the first semester of the seventh grade, the faculty committee evaluated each student according to academic performance, achievement on the School and College Ability Test and teachers' recommendations. As a result of this evaluation, thirty students were selected. These students are taking the following subjects:

7th Grade	8th Grade	9th Grade
*English 7 & 8	*English 1	*English 2
*Science 7 & 8	*General Science 9	*Biology
*Math 7 & 8	*Algebra 1	*Plane Geometry
*Combination of Geography and History	*American History & Civics	*Physical Education
*Physical Education	*Physical Education	*2nd year of foreign language
Developmental Reading	*A foreign language (Latin I or Spanish I)	Plus a selection of 1 or 2 other electives
Art	Band	
Music		
Band		

* Denotes required subject

In addition, the teachers stressed the importance of participating in extracurricular activities.

When we implemented the program, the faculty was convinced that any student who entered the program would be better prepared to meet the challenge of the future whether he stayed six months or six years. We knew that if the program was to be effective, it must be continuous, it must be flexible, it must be liable to change, it must eliminate repetition, and it must be challenging. Teachers recognized the dangers of individual comparisons and jealousies as the key areas to be watched.

Our Pilot Program has been in operation for two years. We are aware of the students' added interests, creativeness, desire to achieve higher goals, and their acceptance of greater responsibilities. We are also aware of the many pitfalls and the many problems.

We would like to recommend that, before a program for the academically talented student or the so-called gifted student is introduced into a junior high-school curriculum, the faculty, administrative staff and, most

important of all, the principal should evaluate the purposes of the present course of studies. If these people determine that within the philosophy of the defined purposes there is a definite need to provide for the academically talented student, then they should accept the challenge to create a program for gifted students to fit their own community needs.

To achieve maximum benefits from this program, the principal must provide the initiative and leadership. His honest convictions and philosophy regarding the talented student are essential to stimulate and inspire the total faculty.

Other factors that help determine the success of the program are: (a) a definite plan; (b) willingness of the staff to read and study purposes and results; (c) an informed parent-community; (d) a cooperative school board that willingly accepts the purpose of the program and the responsibility of providing the necessary materials and equipment; (e) an adequate guidance and testing program; and (f) the most important decision of all, wise choice of teachers. These teachers must possess the following qualities: (1) the desire to work with the gifted student, (2) tolerance, (3) knowledge and understanding of the junior high-school-age students, and (4) the ability to stimulate creative thinking. I firmly believe that each school must conquer the challenge of tomorrow by developing a suitable program for the academically talented students of today.

Summary of the presentation made by ARTHUR W. MASTIN

AMERICA'S greatest resource is her bright children. The need today is to discover every bright child, challenge him to work to his full capacity, and see that he receives all the education from which he can profit.

When it is thought that there is a special group of gifted which should have some unusual help, the problem is posed as to the type of curriculum to give them. One of the major theses for curriculum revision is that it should grow out of a continuous and comprehensive evaluation program which reveals strength and weakness of the curriculum in terms of outcomes, administration, execution, and the measurement of results. At Horace Mann school we approached the problem by initiating a curriculum for seventh-, eighth-, and ninth-grade students which accelerates the mathematics program one year and enriches the remaining part of the program.

Selection of the academically talented was by screening all entering seventh-grade students who had 120 I. Q. or above and those students who had slightly less than 120 I. Q. but had a test score during the sixth year on the *California Achievement Test* showing acceleration of two and

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one-half years or more. Evaluative reports were considered from the sixth-grade teacher, elementary principal, and counselor. We identified 31 out of a group of 237 who met these standards.

Parents of the group selected for the special curriculum were asked to come to school to discuss this program. All parents accepted and there were no declining votes. The curriculum we developed and which is the outcome of the parent meeting is shown below. We selected mathematics for acceleration while the remaining program shows enrichment because there are so many common areas of study in the adopted seventh- and eighth-grade mathematics books.

Although these students work together in some classes, they are also placed in heterogeneous groups when homogeneity is not thought to be advantageous. Such courses as art, industrial arts, home economics, music, and home room are thought of as excellent places to have experiences with other students in the building and would tend to create the true democratic philosophy as it exists in a real life situation.

Seventh-year program

1. Social Living (homogeneous group; enriched; 2-hour core)
2. Science (homogeneous group; enriched)
3. Mathematics (homogeneous group; seventh- and eighth-grade mathematics in one year)
4. Art (heterogeneous group)
5. Physical Education (heterogeneous group)
6. Home Room (heterogeneous group)

Eighth-year program

1. Social Studies (homogeneous group; enriched)
2. English (homogeneous group; enriched program)
3. Science (homogeneous group; enriched program)
4. Mathematics (homogeneous group; algebra)
5. Shop and Homemaking (heterogeneous group)
6. Music (heterogeneous group)
7. Physical Education (heterogeneous group)
8. Home Room (heterogeneous group)

Ninth-year program

1. English (homogeneous group; enriched program)
2. Mathematics (homogeneous group; geometry)
3. World History (recommended elective)
4. Latin or Spanish (recommended elective)
5. Biology (recommended elective)
6. Physical Education (heterogeneous group)
7. Home Room (heterogeneous group)

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Senior High-School Program

Liberal Arts
Course

or

Mathematics & Science
Course

Summary of the presentation made by M. EDWARD NORTHAM

EDUCATION aims at preparing all the youth of today for the adult tasks of tomorrow. Specifically, education aims to afford a maximum of realization of the individual in attaining that position in the society whereby the abilities of that individual are best utilized to the benefit of the society and that individual.

It is with this in mind that provisions must be made for obtaining the best possible education for the academically talented. The gifted mind is a natural resource which must be developed to the greatest possible extent. Therefore, a sound educational program will provide equal opportunity according to individual ability. Such a program must be based upon provisions for:

1. A broader scope of study and information
2. An increase in the range and the application of knowledge
3. A more effective challenge that stimulates more effective response
4. An effective development of high-grade leadership and competence
5. Development of the ability to work independently
6. Development of variable interests
7. Development of creative expression

It is within the scope of the junior high-school program from the standpoint of philosophy and within the range of administrative feasibility to provide for immediate identification of the gifted, to enrich the curriculum, to group according to ability, and to accelerate both the subject area studied and the time allotted for subject studies.

A multi-track program of studies is essential in the junior high school which aims to provide equal educational opportunity to all. Such a "track" program permits individuals to move rapidly in subject areas in which their talent is greatest and to learn in an atmosphere of interest and challenge. It likewise provides an opportunity for more efficient utilization of staff, flexibility in reporting to parents, and better use of homework procedures.

Huntingdon Junior High School with an enrollment of 1,000 pupils has a four-track program. Those students identified as gifted students complete most of the required subjects in two years and then remain in the junior high school to study advance programs in science, foreign language, and mathematics at the same time competing and associating with other students in home room, art, music, physical education, shop, and activities. The program has been in operation for three years and is highly accepted by faculty members, students, and parents.

M. Edward Northam is Principal of Huntingdon Junior High School, Abington, Pennsylvania.

WHAT ARE SOME NEW TRENDS IN REPORTING STUDENT GROWTH AND ACHIEVEMENT TO PARENTS?

CHAIRMAN: *G. Mason Hall*, Principal, Senior High School, Edmonds, Washington

DISCUSSANTS:

B. S. Bradbury, Principal, Wyoming High School, Cincinnati, Ohio

M. Barrett Vorce, Principal, Lee M. Thurston High School, Detroit, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD DALMAN

AS WE study new trends in reporting student growth and achievement to parents, we must appraise the new methods in the light of their efficiency and their potential durability. Are they good enough to survive for a reasonable length of time? Do the new trends throw an additional burden on overworked staff members so that they use up valuable time and effort which could better be spent in improved instruction, or are the new methods time-saving and labor-saving devices which help improve the over-all educational program?

I should like to discuss three new trends and try to evaluate them in the light of my own experience. *First*, the new punch-card type of report card holds promise to fulfill a need for a simpler sorting, compiling, and mailing system of the traditional report card. This system, one of which is available from Royal-McBee Corporation of Port Chester, New York, was described in *THE BULLETIN* of the NASSP, April 1958. This type of report card makes it possible to check more easily more items of interest to parents. The carbon copies make it possible to retain a detailed copy for office and teacher use.

As the time tested A, B, C, D, E system seems to be quite well accepted by parents and colleges, especially for secondary pupils, it is well to consider methods of simplifying our techniques; the above system is geared to do this.

Second, the conference method of reporting, adopted by many elementary-school systems, has recently been tried in many secondary schools with varying degrees of success. The problems involved in this system for secondary schools can easily be seen when we consider the logistics of arranging conferences for parents to visit five or six teachers as compared to one in the elementary, and the problem for the high-school teacher who has to report on 150 pupils as compared to 30 for an elementary teacher. It is very difficult for a secondary instructor to know so many pupils well enough to give accurate appraisals in many areas.

Howard B. Dalman is Principal of Greenville High School, Greenville, Michigan.

Nevertheless, if the conference can be arranged efficiently for both parent and teacher, the personal contact between the two is probably the best way to communicate the important ideas in the pupil's best interest. Because of the time and work involved, this type of conference is seldom held more than once or twice a year. As a public relations device, this method has good possibilities, but to be most effective, teachers should be given some training in making the conference.

Third, one of the most promising trends is the parent-counselor conference, where the counselor serves not only as the spokesman for his own department in interpreting test scores, but also as the interpreter of the school and as a liaison between teachers and parents. Such a plan requires that the counselor must know his counselees well enough that he is qualified to report on the whole child as he relates to the school. The counselor must have available on each student the accumulated information of years past, the test scores which indicate ability, aptitudes, and interests, his social behavior, and his current performance in his scholastic and extracurricular activities. A close relationship between teachers and counselors is necessary to keep channels through which the important information is exchanged.

We must continue to try new methods of reporting and, by continuous evaluation, improve what we have and weed out the ineffective. The above trends are worth working on.

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH E. MICHAEL

THERE is very little that is particularly new in reporting to parents on the senior high-school level. The vast majority of high schools still use the A B C D E marking system and send reports to parents on the traditional report card. Some schools have recently changed their numerical equivalents, particularly at the A and B level, in an attempt to raise standards. It is quite probable, however, that this does little to alter the basic meaning of a letter grade. A number of schools issue three marks for each course; one for academic achievement, one for social habits, and one for work habits. This practice tends to give parents some indication as to the mode of operation of the student in the classroom situation. There is, of course, a high correlation between the social and work habit marks and the academic achievement marks earned by an individual student.

Schools have discovered in the past few years that although they might choose to retain the letter system of reporting, this in itself will not suffice.

Kenneth E. Michael is Principal of Mount Pleasant Senior High School, Wilmington, Delaware.

Parents expect and deserve more than the customary four or six indications of pupil progress during the year. One of the most widely used supplementary reports to parents is that of the "Report of Unsatisfactory Progress." This slip is sent during the marking period to call to the attention of the parents the fact that the student's work in a particular course is unsatisfactory. The apparent reason for the unsatisfactory work is listed by the teacher. A space for the parents' reply is provided on the slip so that the teacher is able to assure parent receipt of the notice. Many districts have felt it necessary to insist that teachers mail these notices to parents so that students have sufficient time to remedy the unsatisfactory conditions. This procedure precludes the possibility of a parent or student indicating surprise upon receipt of a low mark on the report card.

A supplementary report that is not widely used but has been found very satisfactory is that of a personal written comment from the teacher to the parents of each pupil in the class. This is similar to many reporting systems used in elementary schools. It is obviously impossible for a teacher to report in this manner for each of 100 to 150 pupils under his charge. However, it is possible for a teacher to report on this basis for one class of 30 students each marking period. The teacher explains in mimeograph form the purpose of the letter, the basic nature of the course, and the objectives of the course. He then indicates in written detail the progress to date of the individual student. While this procedure is time consuming, it appears to be worth while in terms of teacher-parent relationships.

One reporting problem that has not been solved is that of the grade in terms of ability grouping. Individual schools must face this problem as it is obviously unfair to grade students in different ability groups on the same basis. Parents are justified in their concern when a student in a top ability section receives a "C" and a student in a low ability section receives a "B."

One possible solution to this dilemma is a point system which would base class rank on an accumulation of points during the four high-school years. Students are usually grouped in three to five categories in a required subject such as English. There may be the top section of Senior English designed to prepare students for the Advanced Placement Program. There may be two low ability sections designed for those students who do not plan to attend college. The remaining five or six sections would likely be standard college preparatory sections. Under a point system, an "A" would be valued at five points, a "B" at four points and so forth in each section, but the multiplying factor would vary according to the ability categorization. The multiplier for the top section would be six, for the middle groups five, and for the low sections four. Thus, a student in the top section could accumulate 30 points by receiving an "A" valued at five points multiplied by the factor of six for his ability

group. The maximum points possible for the middle groups would be 25 and the maximum for the low sections would be 20.

This plan would have the same general effect as raising one letter the grades of those students in the top section and lowering one letter the grades of those in the low sections. The report to the parent would be based on the work done in a particular class, but the student's rank would be equivocated to some extent. Since the point system would only affect class rank, this would not appear on the report card. It would, however, assure the parents and students that those in the top sections would not suffer in terms of college acceptance.

The many difficulties of a solution of this nature are obvious. Schools must realize, however, that the greatest single reporting problem today is that of ability grouping. Therefore, some solution must be effected if we are to evaluate all of our students fairly.

Reporting to parents is no longer a simple procedure of report card issuance. It is a process of a constant attempt for mutual understanding between teachers and parents for the ultimate benefit of the students.

WHAT ARE THE ADVANTAGES IN HAVING A PTA IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL? (Arranged in cooperation with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers)

CHAIRMAN: *Delmer H. Battrick*, Principal, Roosevelt Junior-Senior High School, Des Moines, Iowa

DISCUSSANTS:

Mrs. Leigh Gustison, Medford, Oregon; President, Oregon State Congress of Parents and Teachers

Joseph E. Wherry, Principal, Penn Hills Senior High School, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

PANEL:

Mrs. George Tonkin, Jr., Boise, Idaho; Vice President, Region VII, National Conference of Parents and Teachers

Mrs. C. W. Detjen, Webster Groves, Missouri; Chairman, Committee on High School Service, National Congress of Parents and Teachers

Martin H. Munz, Principal, Junior High School, Redlands, California

Donald F. Stone, Principal, West High School, Phoenix, Arizona

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. GEORGE TONKIN, JR.

“WHAT are the advantages of having a PTA in the secondary schools?” certainly poses many other questions. We are not afraid of questions, especially those of challenge. Assuredly, one of your questions might well be “How does the National Congress of Parents and Teachers operate and employ its power?” To help answer this, we need to know the objectives and policies of the National Congress.

Our organization believes the welfare of children and youth is of vital importance in the home, school, and community. We believe that the home is the basic unit in the structure of our society and should be the most constructive influence in building the child's character, sense of values, and his conception of the world. This is made evident in the present administrative theme, “Strengthening the Home, Source of Our Nation's Greatness.” One of our goals is to secure adequate laws for the care and protection of children and youth. A survey of the legislation in which the National Congress has been actively interested throughout the past sixty-three years would tell a most significant story—juvenile courts, care of handicapped children, the Children's Bureau, Federal sharing in education, better support of public education, school lunches, library services. Actually the items are far too many to enumerate. We are ever striving to bring into closer relations the home and the school, that parents

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and teachers may cooperate intelligently in the training of children and youth.

If parents and teachers work in isolation from each other, if they are hostile or even indifferent to each other, our children and youth are the losers. Working together, they can build a fund of understanding on which to draw when difficulties arise. And because we believe that our schools are everybody's business, we work continuously and steadily—not merely in times of crisis—towards developing between educators and the general public such united efforts as will secure for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, social, and spiritual education. Thus is the scope of parent-teacher work defined.

We have policies and procedures, yes. Without them we would be working at cross purposes. But it was never intended, in setting them up, to thwart action at the very moment when action is called for. No organization can be sturdier or wiser than its members. This places a great responsibility upon the leadership in each school PTA. The leadership we seek is not domination by one person or any group of persons, or do we desire to work *for* our high-school students. Rather, we need to enlist student participation and work *with* them. We need leaders of imagination who can find new ways, effective means of meeting urgent problems.

What are some of the specific ways in which the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is serving the needs of our high-school youth? Throughout the country there are more than 45,000 parent-teacher associations that are local units of the National Congress and of the fifty state branches, District of Columbia, and the European Congress of American Parents and Teachers. Out of this number there are more than 8,000 High School PTAs. Through these units we channel information in an effort to solve the problems of classroom and teacher shortages, high-school dropouts, work programs, guidance and counseling, social services, mental illnesses, juvenile delinquency and rehabilitation, and school curriculum. The High School Service chairman of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers is ever searching for answers for parents of teenagers.

Publications sent to the parent-teacher leaders in each community include such as these: "Working with Youth Through the High School PTA"; "What PTA Members Should Know About Juvenile Delinquency"; "Looking in on Our Schools"; "It's High Time." We have a publication of which we are extremely proud—*The National Parent-Teacher, The P.T.A. Magazine*. Each issue carries at least one article on meeting the needs of our youth. The series of discussion articles for this year are concerned with "Days of Discovery." As PTA leaders, we are greatly disturbed over the widespread distribution of pornography among youngsters. Our PTA magazine carries the PTA challenge into the homes. We know this will not be the entire answer for we need to create wholesome attitudes

and values in sex education—those that can be strengthened by the interaction of home, school, and other community agencies. In the November issue of the *National Parent-Teacher*, our accomplished editor, Eva H. Grant, has recognized the country-wide concern in secondary education in the timely article "Our High Schools, Some Problems and Challenges." The questions posed and the research available could well keep students, parents, and teachers occupied in study for many months.

As we, the secondary-school principals and parent-teacher leaders, continue our search for the answers to the teenage problems, please keep in mind these five very good reasons why the National Congress of Parents and Teachers believes it has a specific power of action that is an advantage in having a PTA in the secondary schools.

1. We believe we can *help* provide the best possible homes, schools, and communities by multiplying our individual powers through cooperative action.

2. We believe we will *grow* by learning, together with other parents and teachers, how to become worthy of the noblest responsibility mankind bears—the wise rearing and education of children and youth.

3. We believe we can *learn* what research and experience have to teach us about giving our youth every opportunity for healthy and helpful lives, as they grow in the stressful present towards an unpredictable future.

4. We believe we should *think* creatively about using this knowledge to guide our teenagers in the ways of moral, physical, and intellectual excellence.

5. And, to *know* that we do not labor alone but share the high courage and fellowship of millions of other men and women would bring the world of our children and youth closer to our hopes is worth our time and efforts.

Giant promise has been moved by persistent labor. "Let us not be weary in well doing."

Summary of the presentation made by MRS. C. W. DETJEN

PARENTS and educators often use the term *building* in connection with the work they do for and with boys and girls. The secondary-school PTA is the place where the two crews of builders should get together, compare notes, decide wherein the structure needs strengthening, and then do something about it.

Secondary-school PTA's are a necessity if parents and teachers really want to prepare youth in the best possible way to meet life. Parents are many times reluctant or indifferent about belonging to a secondary-school PTA. On the other side, secondary-school principals are often reluctant to encourage formation of a PTA—feeling that it will just create more problems for them and that PTA programs are of little value in building understanding. Our reply to this reluctance is that the principal gets from his PTA what he expects of it. We believe a good PTA needs the

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principal's support quite as much as the principal needs a good PTA.

There are three areas in which the secondary-school PTA should assume responsibility for educating the public:

1. *School information.* This should familiarize parents with the school plant, acquaint them with the school staff, tell them what goes on in a typical school day, inform them about the course offered in each grade, inform them about the guidance and counseling services, and give them facts on the cost of operating a high school and whether community taxes provide sufficient funds to meet these costs.

2. *Parent education.* Information should be offered to parents on understanding the emotional, physical, and social growth of youth and on the part the parents play in assisting these changes.

3. *School problems.* Some of these problems are dropouts, juvenile delinquency, lack of home cooperation, and problems related to curricular and extracurricular activities.

These areas should suggest many other avenues that need exploring. Because there is so much vital work to be done by a high-school PTA, we should not unnecessarily prolong the business part of our meetings, or present programs that are merely entertaining. Here are a few things that have been tried. A study of dropouts and the reasons for them resulted in action that decreased them. Youth conduct codes reduce delinquency problems. A program on problems of youth, presented by the youngsters themselves, resulted in better understanding in the home. A school handbook was prepared which included information on the school plant, aims of the instructional program, rules and regulations, appropriate dress for students, and club and extracurricular activities.

We need you, the secondary-school principal, in our work with youth; and we think that you need us. Let us cooperate to the fullest so that youth is given every opportunity.

Summary of the presentation made by MARTIN H. MUNZ

WE BELIEVE there are several advantages in having a Parent-Teachers Association in the secondary school. First, most parents need an "excuse" for coming in contact with their junior or senior high school. The PTA offers them an "open door" to the school. Through the many activities of the PTA, parents serve the organization, the school, and their children.

It is through participation in the secondary-school PTA that parents have an opportunity to continue, more readily, their active interest in their teenagers' education and activities at a time in life when pupils need it most. Through the program of the PTA, parents can learn about school activities, the curriculum, the guidance program, the testing program,

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opportunities after graduation, *etc.* Parents learn whom they can contact in the school for specific information concerning their child's aptitudes, abilities, capacities, interests, and limitations. When parents, teachers, and administrators work together for the benefit of the child, the result is a better school.

Another advantage of the PTA in the secondary school is that it offers to the school a medium for interpreting the school's aims, philosophy, and program to the community. It is our belief that programs presented at unit meetings should be related to the local school. The following are examples of such programs: a panel discussion by speech students on teenage problems; a demonstration on how to teach a certain concept in mathematics; a demonstration on how to teach a new song in glee club; a discussion of opportunities for schooling after high school; and a panel discussion on the science curriculum or on any other subject field.

At the monthly PTA board meetings, the principal usually has an opportunity to tell the board members of significant happenings at and plans of the school. By giving this important group of parents accurate information regarding school events, the principal is likely to have the support of a nucleus of the community on many school issues.

Many projects for the benefit of schools are sponsored by the secondary-school PTA. Some of the most common activities supported by this group are tax and bond elections, commencement parties, teenage recreational activities, college scholarships, student codes of behavior, music or speech festivals, parent study groups, and youth problem workshops.

The PTA has advantages in the secondary school over other types of parent clubs because of its cumulative experience and its tremendous numerical strength on state and national levels. Each secondary school benefits from the many ideas which PTA workers share with one another at district and council meetings, conventions, and workshops, and through publications.

Through years of experience, the PTA has developed policies which are intelligent and sound. These policies are based on high moral standards and protect the local organizations from unwise practices. At the same time, the National Congress of the PTA is willing to change its policies to keep pace with changing times.

In the state legislative bodies and in our National Congress, the PTA legislative committee, wield much influence. They support laws which are in the best interests of education and youth, and they oppose legislation which is detrimental. In general, the schools find their strongest supporters in the PTA.

The principal can have a strong PTA in his junior or senior high school if he will take an active interest in the work of the organization, attend all board meetings, encourage faculty support of the PTA, and if he will give the PTA an opportunity to render constructive service to the school.

Summary of the presentation made by D. F. STONE

PUBLIC education is a primary function of the state. The public school is one of the few remaining functions of the government, which still is under local autonomy. School boards have wide powers of control and they are generally responsive to the wishes of their electorate when these wishes are clearly expressed. In situations wherein the interpretation of the school program has been left exclusively to the professional staff, lack of understanding school needs has often resulted in unwarranted attacks on the curriculum, bond issues, and on the confidence and integrity of the school administrators. The PTA is the only organized group of parents interested in the high school and its program. It is self-governing, planning its program and activities to meet the needs of adolescent youth in the school and community. It is linked through membership in the Council, to the State and National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Its by-laws and organization are prescribed by the state and national organizations.

PTA welcomes into membership all parents and other citizens interested in the welfare of children and youth. High-school PTA's differ from the elementary association in the following ways. The high-school unit is usually larger, serving youth in a larger area of the community, or several communities. Its activities center in problems confronting adolescents and their parents. Class section meetings (*i.e.* freshmen, sophomore) bring together parents and students of the same age having similar interests. High-school students are old enough to participate in the association activities. In cases where students take a direct part in PTA activities, the organization sometimes is known as PTSA, Parent-Teacher-Student Association.

High-School PTA is a community force and cooperates with other community and civic organizations. It engages in curriculum study, school plants, educational standards, teacher staffs, and instruction materials. The PTA, while not basically being a fund-raising organization, sends thousands of young people to college and in other ways helps students with their educational problems.

The PTA can be very effective in carrying the educational story to the public. It can help to pass needed bond issues and come to the aid of teachers, administrators and boards of education when under specific and derogatory attack by interests not sympathetic to public education, or not interested basically in the education of all the children.

There are some problems in the organization of a high-school PTA which must be solved if it is to be effective. The local organization's primary function is to serve the children of its school. Regional, state, and national organizations must remember that they serve local organi-

zations; not *vice versa*. Most of the money raised through dues, and all money raised through projects should be spent on the local level. Most of the financial support and major effort of the high-school PTA should funnel back and strengthen and assist high-school PTA's (and not elementary PTA's) of the council, state and national organizations. High-school PTA's should belong to regional high-school councils, not mixed-member councils comprising both high school and elementary PTA's.

The organizational structure of the high-school PTA's should depart as much as possible from that of the elementary pattern. Most parents have had eight years or more of PTA by the time their children first arrive in high school. Parents, especially fathers, are tired of the details of the elementary PTA meetings. They are impatient at the lengthy business meetings. Elementary PTA programs are directed and run by women almost exclusively. There is generally a good deal of time and effort spent on fund raising projects, which do not always derive to the benefit of the local program. Men refrain from coming to meetings since they feel they play a minor role in the organization.

The high-school PTA has less need for frequent meetings and is more interested in the quality of the meetings. Meetings should be more formally planned with students participating wherever possible. The business should be largely taken care of in board meetings. Definite effort should be made to build into the structure and program those things which will attract and hold the interest of men. The high-school PTA should make a determined effort to enroll the majority of parents to insure good attendance at the meetings. The programs should be meaningful and interesting and appealing and as worthwhile to men as to women.

In summing up the things which should be done to insure the success of the high-school PTA, the following items should be kept in mind: (1) programs must be suited to the needs of adolescent youth; (2) the PTA can assist the school in many ways to make the programs more meaningful; (3) it can interpret the school to the community; (4) it must be so organized as to attract both men and women as being vitally important to the children and their welfare; (5) business must be largely relegated to board meetings; (6) frequency of meetings must be carefully regulated; (7) programs must be carefully planned so they attract and interest parents, both men and women; (8) membership drive must be put on early in the year and must be effective in reaching as many parents as possible; and (9) projects must be chosen in close cooperation with school administration and faculty.

In many ways the high-school PTA can relieve the professional staff of certain responsibilities. The PTA can supply lay speakers to service clubs, women's clubs, tax associations, and other civic group meetings more effectively than might administrators or even board of education members. The PTA can carry the needs of the school to the community, particularly to the power structure of the community and defend public education and the program of the school against unwarranted attacks.

SINGLE OR MULTIPLE DIPLOMAS—WHICH?

CHAIRMAN: *Harold M. Stauffer*, Principal, High School, Cody, Wyoming

DISCUSSANTS:

James T. Brockman, Principal, Senior High School, Lee's Summit, Missouri

Stanley Smith, Principal, Calvin Coolidge Junior High School, Moline, Illinois

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT H. JERRY

DIPLOMAS are granted as evidence of satisfactory completion of the requirements for graduation from high school. Our culture and our laws are requiring that a student remain in school for a longer period of time. The single diploma does not differentiate between the conscientious learner and the conspicuous retainer.

In the Covington Community High School, a system of multiple diplomas has been initiated. This plan serves to motivate capable students toward higher standards of achievement and to indicate with greater clarity the quality of achievement of the students being graduated. The minimum requirements for graduation in Indiana are as follows: English, 3 units; social studies, 2 units; science, 1 unit; mathematics, 1 unit; physical education and health, 1 unit; electives, 8 units. The minimum requirements listed below for the differentiated diplomas are those which vary from the minimums as specified by the Indiana Department of Public Instruction.

I. *Academic Diploma*—16 solid units, 17½ total units—English, 4 units; social studies, 3 units; science, 2 units; foreign language, 2 units; mathematics, 3 units; social science, 1 unit; typing, ½ unit recommended.

II. *Regular Diploma*—16 solid units, 17½ total units—English, 4 units; mathematics, 2 units; social science, 1 unit; typing, ½ unit recommended.

III. *Completion Certificate*—16 total units, granted to students having a scholarship index of 1.6 or lower—English, 4 units; mathematics, 2 units; social science, 1 unit.

Many people feel that an academic diploma should designate the student as one who has spent his four years of high-school work mastering science, mathematics, a foreign language, and the classics. This would mark a student in business education, art education, industrial arts, home economics, and other areas as a student not capable of mastering the academic type of program. This, I believe, is erroneous. Statistics show that many of our more capable students, for various reasons, will not continue their formal education after high school. Such a student should

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major in an area in which he is interested, one in which he is very capable, and/or one he will pursue in later life. This student also should be permitted to earn the academic diploma if he so wishes. With this in mind, the student would have to take the required courses on the academic curriculum, but he would be permitted to take his electives in the area of his aptitude and choice.

The question of which diploma then is a matter of guidance. The capable student who has no specific area of interest or who wants a good background for college work should earn the academic diploma. The capable student who is not going to further his formal education but who desires to learn a skill or trade probably should earn the regular diploma. The student who fails to meet minimum standards for the academic or the regular diploma but who is an acceptable school citizen will be awarded the completion certificate. The size or the cost of the diploma does not matter—the value is in the size and worth of the individual earning it.

Summary of the presentation made by F. EMERSON KAUFFMAN

THE question under consideration is one which concerns many schools. In most cases, however, it is not one that requires an immediate answer. They may continue with the diploma currently being used, or conduct a re-examination of their procedures and alter the system as the study indicates. This was not the situation that existed in Hempfield Area Senior High School four years ago. At that time a decision was essential. The school was formed then as an entirely new organization of approximately 1500 students and a program that included Academic, Business, eight areas of Vocational and Technical Education, and a General Program. Certain academic requirements were established for all students. The various factors considered and the bases for the decision to adopt a single diploma forms the nucleus for this presentation. At the same time, it must be recognized that there are many justifications for the multiple type. The weighing of the values and limitations of each type is necessary if one is to arrive at an educationally defensible position.

The generally accepted idea of multiple diplomas relates to the program of studies pursued and little else. Generally, little provision is made to indicate the quality of achievement, either in comparison with individual ability or with any other standard. Probably, the most common use of achievement type of distinction is in the designation of an "Honor" group. Immediately, the question arises, "Should such a group receive a different diploma from the others, or is public recognition sufficient?" Also, "Should

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this recognition be based on academic achievement alone or on the entire program?"

Unfortunately, studies conducted on this question appear to be based on surveys of present practices and justifications based on opinions. I know of no scientific study that provides information as to which type provides the most educational value. It is entirely possible that there is little difference either way. The accepted benefits of one type may well be offset by those received from the other. Also, there is little at the moment to indicate any solidifying of opinion among administrators regarding this question. Principal Dermot Dennis of Coldwater (Michigan) reports the results of a survey conducted in that state. Once more, it points up the sharp differences of opinion existing. One very interesting bit of information provided in this report is that, while smaller schools would seem to have more difficulty providing a diversified program, multiple diplomas are more common in these smaller schools than the larger ones.

Whatever the type currently being used, it is always advisable to re-examine procedures periodically. Our explorations in regard to this question were conducted with the following considerations in mind:

1. What is the philosophy of the school?
2. What is the purpose of the diploma?
3. How is it used by the person receiving it?
4. When considering the multiple type, is there a possibility of placing undue emphasis on any one program of studies?
5. When considering the single diploma, is proper recognition being given to outstanding achievement?
6. Are public relations affected by the type used?
7. What was student reaction?
8. Are administrative problems worthy of consideration?

The philosophy of the school, together with the interests, aptitudes, and abilities of the students must undergo careful inspection. If the philosophy of the school is such that the major objective is to develop these abilities to the greatest extent possible, regardless of the area in which they lie, consideration must be given to whether multiple diplomas may tend to place undue prestige on one program of studies. If this is true, it tends to make the task of the counselor more difficult in guiding the student to an individual program that best meets his needs. Is the danger of developing a "caste" system a real or imaginary one? The perennial problem of the student who insists (or his parents insist) on following an academic program when unsuited for it is common to most of us. Part of this may come from unwillingness to accept the idea of individual differences, but many times it is the social prestige that provides the stimulus. A single diploma may help reduce the number of these misfits.

The very purpose of the diploma itself must be considered carefully. Gone are the days when most interested persons considered the diploma itself as a special mark of preparation for the future. In most cases, it has

become more of a souvenir—something to present to the student in a public recognition ceremony, shown to a few friends, and then filed away among the other keepsakes. I wonder how many persons could produce their own high-school diploma if requested to do so. The admissions officer in an institution of higher learning or the prospective employer is not particularly interested in the diploma as such, but rather on the scholastic, citizenship, and attendance record of the prospect, provided directly from the school to the inquirer. Dr. Conant makes note of this in his recommendations. His suggestion that each student be provided a durable copy of the courses studied and the grades obtained has met with much favor.

Community attitude toward either type may or may not be an important factor. This is probably more of a consideration in an older, established institution than in a newer one, such as ours. People tend to resist change unless a specific justification for the change is provided. While we received no reaction of any note when introducing the single diploma, a change now might well necessitate extensive explanation and justification. Student reaction generally follows, or leads, the community attitude. We found no strong feelings either way among our students.

Probably the least defensible, but nevertheless very real problem when granting multiple diplomas, is the mechanics involved in providing the diploma itself. In most schools the diploma is ordered months in advance of the actual presentation. Borderline cases—those who may fail to qualify for a specific program but meet the basic requirements for a general one—present a problem as to the type to order. Even if the differentiation is based on achievement standards, these cases will still exist.

Certainly much remains to be done in an investigative way before an answer to this question can be conclusive. As more interest develops, if the question becomes important enough to develop that interest, conclusions based on facts discovered will be available. Until that time, we probably will continue to debate the question on hypothesis. As long as we consider the various ramifications carefully, the decision reached is defensible.

WHAT ARE SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN IN-SERVICE EDUCATION FOR THE PRINCIPAL AND HIS STAFF?

CHAIRMAN: *Alton A. Ellis*, Director of Curriculum, Clarke County Schools, Athens, Georgia

DISCUSSANTS:

R. J. Cochrane, Principal, Kelvin High School, Winnipeg, Manitoba, Canada

John F. Plank, Principal, High School, Culver City, California

Summary of the presentation made by OWEN M. HENSON

A PROGRAM of in-service training is vital to any school system. Secondary schools, in particular, with the wide variation of interests and preparation among the staff members representing the many departments need some cohesive force for the development of a common purpose. Described below is one phase of the in-service education program in the public schools of Topeka.

Recently, in the public schools of Topeka, it was decided that reading as an important and basic ingredient in learning deserved system-wide attention in the junior and senior high schools. The need for such a program was evidenced by the fact that our students are taken through the six elementary grades in an organized developmental reading program in self-contained classrooms, but upon entrance into the departmentalized junior high school, a reading program as such almost ceases. It is true that the language arts teachers do a great deal of work in this area and feel that primary responsibility for the teaching of reading rests with them; but, in many cases, the secondary teachers sometimes pay lip service to reading instruction without actually meeting the problem.

In order to make a broadside attack upon this problem, a series of six weekly two-hour meetings on the subject of reading were held involving the principals and supervisors at the secondary-school level. A description of the nature of these six meetings is essential in order to develop the kind of approach which was being attempted. The first meeting was devoted to a presentation by the consultant for elementary education who is a specialist in reading. Discussion centered around the program of the elementary school and the teaching techniques of the self-contained classroom.

The second meeting involved a presentation by the supervisor of language arts who described the reading problems and present program in grades 7-12. The discussion revealed the tremendous task confronting

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English teachers and the sense of frustration on their part when they tried to accomplish all that is implied in the four language arts.

At the third and fourth meetings, the reading teachers from the system's two high schools reported on the reading program existing in the two schools. To a limited degree, one high school was partially meeting the need for that 15 per cent of the students which can usually be classified as remedial cases. The other high school was rendering a service to some of the remedial cases and also had a developmental program for all sophomores one day a week.

For the fifth meeting, a resource person, Dr. Oscar Haugh, of the University of Kansas, spoke to the group. He outlined a minimum developmental program:

1. Discover the reading ability of students in the various subjects.
2. Discover the level of difficulty of materials presently in use.
3. Every teacher should teach the vocabulary of the subject.
4. Every teacher should instruct the student in how to read the text.
5. Assignments in all subjects should set the stage for building good reading habits.
6. Every teacher should motivate extended reading in each subject.

At the sixth and final meeting of the series, a small subcommittee appointed by the director of instruction summarized and made recommendations for a course of action. The recommendations of the committee were:

1. The establishment of a reading center or clinic with a coordinator and possibly one assistant for the nine junior high schools and the two senior high schools.
2. At least 50 per cent of the efforts of the reading center would be directed toward promoting and encouraging a developmental reading program. The remaining time would be devoted to diagnosis and treatment of remedial cases referred to the center.
3. The appointment of an English teacher in each junior high school to serve as an extension of the reading center. Preferably each of these two teachers would have some released time for this purpose. The role of the English teacher would be to coordinate materials and equipment in each building, encourage and help teachers in all departments with a developmental program, and teach at least one small section of remedial cases.
4. The teachers mentioned in Item 3 were to be encouraged to seek additional training through an extension course in reading offered by Dr. Haugh or through summer workshops.

In conclusion, the Committee on Reading believes that a conscious and determined effort to build a developmental reading program, supplemented by a remedial program, is essential to modern secondary education. Such an endeavor requires a broad attack, involving the entire school system, with strong and aggressive administrative support. The recommendations above are only a first step in the achievement of a minimum program.

Summary of the presentation made by FRANK N. PHILPOT

THE various professions have adopted varying terms for their on-the-job training programs. No profession considers that its members are properly educated at the end of their initial training period, but rather that experience gives one the ability to learn even more rapidly and to pick out those points which are vital to one's own situation with more clarity than was possible while one was only a trainee. Education has adopted the term "in-service education" for its program of on-the-job training.

The education of teachers is being thought of more and more as a process beginning when the student enters upon his preparation early in his college career and ending with his retirement from the profession. That training which is completed in college and before taking a position is generally referred to as pre-service education, while any training undertaken along with, or which is incidental to, one's work is called in-service education. The greatest difficulty in the way of making in-service training interesting and meaningful to teachers is the identification of actual problems.

Perhaps the most significant development in the practice of in-service education is the tendency to have the training take place in the classroom—both literally and figuratively speaking. If the purpose of the program is to change what goes on in the classroom, it is certainly likely that the end result will be more likely to do just that if the teacher doesn't have to do any "transfer of learning," so to speak. In the past we have sometimes forgotten the "in" in in-service.

Everybody should take a long, slow, comprehensive look at the whole curriculum before concentrating on specific areas. In many cases we have been doing that for some time. It is time we stopped surveying the horizon and looked at the grass beneath our feet. If the program is general, it is quite easy for one to shrug his shoulders and to think that the person down the hall in the next classroom certainly ought to take advantage of *that*. Perhaps you remember when ministers didn't give philosophical discourses and members of the congregation were sometimes offended by the direct reference to their own shortcomings. One lady was asked how she liked the sermon and she replied, "He certainly hit everyone there except me."

If the in-service training takes place in my classroom or on a project which I am carrying on in my classroom, there can be no passing the buck. I have actually been trained—to a greater or less degree, depending upon how deeply the new *habit pattern has become fastened*.

Frank N. Philpot is Head of the Department of Education and Psychology, Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois.

I have tried to collect a few examples of this process which emphasized both the "in" and the "training" part of the process. One workshop I learned about prepared the teachers to present educational television programs. In their first attempt, they presented a series of programs for the elementary-grade level. The teachers in the classroom actually presented the series after it had been worked out more or less as a group project. A production committee helped prepare a teachers' guide and helped with the evaluation of each program.

Another use of television was teacher demonstrations by closed-circuit television. While the children learned, the teacher was observing new methods to use on the next class.

Another version of the same thing is the teachers' Help-mobile for sparsely populated areas. In this the demonstrating teachers came to one's classroom, not *via* television, but in a station wagon or bus and several demonstrations are held at the same time.

Some systems hold an elementary teachers' music workshop. The idea that music is best taught by each primary teacher immediately establishes a basis of in-service need. The special music teacher assigned to each elementary school or even one assigned to a district becomes a consultant to all. I have seen teachers who had no previous training or aptitude for music come to see what they could do with a record player, simple tunes which they could learn to play on the piano and with rhythm band instruments. They developed into excellent music teachers and were able to make music a happy experience for the pupils.

Workshops in art have been found to be most helpful. Many a teacher has found great joy in managing the art media and materials and in finding that, with a little practice, he or she can actually draw or paint. Ideas for exchanging talents and ways for finding new talent were encouraged. This type of workshop has been found to give best results when the workshop participants prepared a course of study for all the art (or music, or science workshops in the system).

The following are some unusual kinds of workshops which might be interesting and helpful to you:

A "Here's How I Do It" workshop, in which teachers began to share and demonstrate interesting and worth-while techniques. This was most stimulating and rewarding. In the first place, teachers were inspired to look critically at their work and to search diligently in professional magazines in order to prepare the sharing situation. In the second place, a spirit of appreciation of the other fellow's work developed to a high degree.

Many schools hold special in-service training groups for those on probation (the first three years). I would call this an absolute necessity for any school system. Sometimes the most helpful ideas for its organization can be gleaned from those who have just completed the probationary

period. "Where did you need help and fail to get it?" can sometimes be a most revealing question.

Workshops which give college credit have been successful in some systems and by opening them to the public have recruited teachers.

A system should periodically hold an audio-visual workshop in order to bring teachers up-to-date with materials, new equipment, its operation, and with opportunities for using audio-visual material. Particularly since the flight of Sputnik, schools have been holding workshops in science and in mathematics in order to accelerate their programs in these fields.

A gifted-child workshop is also in keeping with the present trend and can yield many practical suggestions for changing classroom practices. A resource-use workshop in which the group studies better ways for the use of human and natural resources obviously has unlimited possibilities. Most systems now have some kind of a training period for the non-teaching staff, in which the cafeteria, the custodial, and transportation personnel are trained. A few systems have help workshops to which laymen were invited and have felt that the added understanding was well worth the effort. Some have thereby recruited board members who went to bat for them with the city fathers and at the polls.

HOW CAN THE STUDENT COUNCIL HELP TO IMPROVE THE RESPECT OF STUDENTS FOR ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT?

CHAIRMAN: *Donald E. Leer*, Principal, High School, Stevenson, Washington

DISCUSSANTS:

William F. Carlson, Principal, Junior-Senior High School, Northfield, Minnesota

William K. Meek, Assistant Superintendent Public Schools, Grandview, Missouri

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE W. CARLSON

ANY influence of a student council upon the attitudes of the high-school student body depends upon the value of the council to the school. Organization of the student council, caliber of the elected or appointed representatives, and the sincere interest of the administrative staff are important factors. If the principal and the teaching staff feel that the council is an organization to be tolerated because of the national popularity

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of the student council organization, then the local council will not be represented by the real leaders of the school. If the school places the student council on the same basis as other extraschool activities, it will be accepted as such by the entire school population as well as the teaching staff. Give the council the same value as other academic subjects and it will become an organization which will upgrade all academic activities.

I will not attempt to list the influences in any particular order, but shall attempt to list some of the activities of my own council and some of the practices of systems that I have visited. Projects must be sponsored that will focus the attention of students on academic achievements.

First, a competent teacher must be given the position of adviser. He must understand the objectives of the student council program as well as understand the policies of the administration of the school, and must be accepted by the students as a leader in school activities. He must be willing to devote a great deal of time to developing leaders in all of their activities. He must have a friendly attitude toward their many ideas and projects and be a patient listener to all of their plans. He must be able to sell the council to the teaching staff so that the majority of the teaching staff will give publicity to all council programs.

Second, the student council must have a definite schedule on the time schedule the same as all subjects. Members of the council should be elected in the spring so that the council meetings are assigned to a regular period on the time schedule. In some cases, students would have this assignment alternating with gym, band, orchestra, drivers education, or some other partial credit subject. In this way students would not miss a class of some other subjects at intervals. We know that the conscientious student resents being taken out of a regular class, and quite generally the better students will not seek to serve. The adviser has this assignment as a regular part of his class load. He then has time to plan and organize every project promoted by the group. It gives him time to plan and organize every project promoted and insures success for all final recommendations of the group.

Third, the responsibility of presenting all scholarship material to the student body becomes an objective of the council. All materials pertaining to scholarships are carefully evaluated by a council committee on scholarships, and, after careful screening, are placed on a scholarship bulletin board. Students become interested in this project and naturally become personally interested in their own academic achievement. It provides a responsibility for the student council and they recognize it has value for them and is not just "Busy Work."

Fourth, the sponsorship of the National Honor Society is another function of the council. Although the faculty is called upon to elect the membership, the installation at a good assembly program should be sponsored by the council. Students are made aware of the importance of academic achievement and will develop a wholesome regard for its values.

Fifth, at the present time most students realize the importance of a college education and attend a College Night in which the parent, student, and college representative meet. In our school the evening is started with a six-o'clock buffet dinner for the members of our staff and the college representatives. Here again the council members assist in greeting the guests, help in serving, and act as guides during the evening sessions. The hours spent in organizing and planning bring to the front the value of high academic achievement.

There are many other projects which will directly bring the council closer to the student body. If these projects are given the proper amount of publicity and are successful, the council becomes the leader in the academic field and will help to improve academic standards. If the principal will permit sufficient time in his busy schedule to have conferences with the committee that develop the academic policies of the school and give the student councils a feeling of leadership, then, and only then, can he discover that he has an organization that will have the respect of the student body and the staff and that will be able to influence the actions and thinking of the influential leaders.

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES E. HOOD

BEFORE entering into a discussion on the various techniques a student council can use in "Improving the Respect of Students for Academic Achievement," it may be well to comment on a few general questions raised by this particular problem. As at a summit conference, unanimous agreement can readily be obtained on a broad subject such as "the desirability for peace." And at this NASSP conference certainly all of us want to promote "quality education" or "respect for scholarship." However, in both cases, the area of controversy usually begins when we descend from the high level of general principles to that of method, implementation, and definition of terms. We should be reasonably sure that we are talking or thinking about the same things, and that the methods proposed will actually accomplish the desired results. Some typical questions are listed below:

1. *Should we limit academic achievement to academic subjects?* Due to the difficulty in separating the academic from the non-academic courses, the difficult from the easy courses, or the general courses from the vocational courses, it would probably be desirable to include all subjects offered for credit toward graduation. We can then assume that we are attempting to promote respect for achievement in subjects in the cur-

Charles E. Hood is Superintendent-Principal of Custer County High School and Junior College, Miles City, Montana.

riculum, as compared with respect for achievement in extracurricular activities.

2. *Is there a danger in overemphasizing marks and scores?* Assuming that we must use teachers' marks and standardized test scores to determine academic achievement, and recognizing the limitation of both of these measurements, it may be wise to consider the danger of attaching too much importance to these indications of academic achievement. Marks should not be considered ends in themselves, and students should not be under such pressure that they will even cheat to attain them. Students should recognize the intrinsic value of and the individual need for academic achievement, and realize marks are only the best means we have for measuring this achievement.

3. *Does the community really want to give more recognition to the top students scholastically than to the star athletes?* "Educationists" have been criticized for attempting to set up progressive-school curriculums and lower scholastic standards against the wishes of the local community. In the case of sports, it seems that forces in the community outside of the school—including the press, radio, and TV—combine to give tremendous recognition, acclaim, and prestige to the top sports performer, as compared with the academic achiever. If these news agencies were asked why, the answer would be that this is what the public is interested in and wants. However, I am sure that we must assume that the public takes scholastic achievement as the primary purpose for the existence of the school, and, although it is taken as a matter-of-course and not recognized in the minds of the public so flamboyantly, in the last analysis, the extracurricular activities are just pleasant and exciting appendages on the curricular studies.

4. *Do artificial incentives really increase respect for academic achievement?* Artificial incentives, such as chenille letters, medals, pins, testimonial dinners, special assemblies, and honor roll publicity have their place in recognizing high scholarship as long as the award is appropriate and conferred with dignity. Students will have no respect for the award, however, unless they first have respect for academic achievement.

5. *Are we interested in increasing respect for improvement in academic achievement or just top achievement?* Top achievement should receive the major recognition; however, improvement is what we should encourage all students to strive for. Awards should not be so numerous that they are meaningless; but neither should they be so selective that 90 per cent of the student body cannot possibly hope to win one, regardless of how hard they may try.

A SUGGESTED SOLUTION

After having recognized and discussed some of the above problems involved in improving the respect of students for academic achievement, we are prepared to submit a comparatively simple solution to the problem.

Student opinion is of prime importance in improving respect for academic achievement, and the student council is the agency in the best position to influence student opinion. We must recognize that it will be very difficult to raise this respect no matter how many gold medals are handed out at commencement time, or other artificial incentives are provided, as long as the typical student feels that these awards are unimportant and that the really smart student is the one who does just enough work to get by. Gold medals, chenille letters, Honor Rolls, *etc.* must have meaning to be significant.

It is in this area that the student council can make its contribution both by example and deed. These students, who are elected by their classmates—and the typical student council member is a top student—exert a tremendous influence in raising respect for academic achievement. By being at the same time both a top student academically and an admired student personally, student council members greatly increase the respect for scholarship by example. In addition, they are in position to recommend various awards and honors which will recognize academic achievement appropriately from a student point of view. These methods and techniques will vary from school to school.

If the majority of students in any high school do not have a proper respect for academic achievement, then that school is in serious trouble, since this means that the students do not have sufficient regard for the purpose for which the school was primarily established. However, at present, there does seem to be a healthy respect for scholarship in many high schools; and this respect has been on the increase during the past few years.

HOW BEST TO ORGANIZE GUIDANCE AND COUNSELING SERVICES FOR STUDENTS IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Wilford H. Woody*, Principal, West High School, Denver, Colorado

DISCUSSANTS:

Don H. Bunt, Principal, High School, Olympia, Washington

Walter J. Rock, Assistant Director of Secondary Education, Public Schools, St. Paul, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by HUGH BISH

ALL high schools offer guidance and counseling services to students and have been offering such services since the first high school was founded. For the most part, these services were offered without the benefit of a planned program and were administered by teachers and principals. Many teachers are capable counselors and have offered guidance and counseling to students for many years as a part of a regular teaching assignment. The counseling of students has always been an important function of the principal. However, a teacher's time and a principal's time is limited; and many high schools have found it expedient to offer additional services beyond those formerly considered adequate. These additional services were prompted by the following: (1) a diversified curriculum calling for a greater choice in the selection of studies by the student; (2) a need to identify students with reference to ability and interest; (3) an increase in the holding power of the high school with the need to help students with a wide range of ability for a longer period; and (4) an increased interest in our gifted or top students.

To meet this need for additional services beyond those formerly considered adequate, most high schools have organized a guidance and counseling program with definite aims and purposes. It would be impossible to plan a single program which would meet the needs of all high schools. The type of program would depend on the size, location, and the type of high school. The organized guidance program of any high school is best developed by those acquainted with the local situation.

A high school changing from a haphazard program to a planned guidance program should move slowly. In our efforts to keep abreast of the times, there is a tendency to bury ourselves in a maze of paper work. In our efforts to impress our critics, we forget our primary purpose—to help the individual student.

The greatest single contribution of a guidance and counseling program comes from sitting down face to face with the student and helping him

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with his problems and future plans. The personal interview is one part of the program which should not be cheated.

The counseling service calls for trained personnel. A high school is no better than its principal; a classroom is no better than its teacher; and a guidance program is no better than its counselor. What does it take to make a good counselor? The first prerequisite is a willing worker. The possibilities in the field of guidance are unlimited, and a counseling job is just as big or just as small as the counselor makes it. Listening is an important phase of counseling, and a counselor needs to be able to listen as well as express himself. A counselor should get along well not only with students but also with teachers and parents. It has been said that a counselor is an administrator without authority. The substitution of tact for authority takes a lot of patience. A counselor will become an important public relations official in the school and will be called on to speak to student and civic groups. Therefore, a good professional attitude is most important. Voice, personal habits, and personal appearance are major factors to be considered. It should be remembered that respect and confidence are a counselor's most important commodities.

Where do you find such a person? An excellent place to look is within your own school system. The best way to know a person is to work with him; and a person acquainted with your system, your students, your community, and with the principal is likely to do a better job than a stranger. If a good person can be found within your own system, this person should take additional college training in the field of guidance and counseling. This college training should precede the actual appointment to the position of counselor.

A counselor needs a place to work. There is a tendency to place counselors in cubby holes originally designed as a custodian storeroom. A counselor should have an office with storage space and a waiting room. A good counselor will soon become an important person in your school and should be given the prestige of ample office facilities. If you are planning a new high school, the guidance department should be given consideration in the planning of office space.

After a counselor has been chosen and given a place to work, what then? Your planning must of necessity decide what his function will be. He could easily become a clerk, a director of activities, a dean of boys or girls, or an administrative assistant to the principal. Most high schools are short of administrative help, and it is easy to divert a counselor to a needed situation. However, if the counselor begins his duties as a counselor of students, the guidance program will probably develop in a rather set pattern. A counselor will find that he, the counselor, is in need of additional information to help the student. Standardized tests are useful tools, and a testing program becomes essential. Other information helpful to counselors are enrollment cards, scholastic records, selection of study cards, and guidance information sheets filled out by the students at the

beginning of the school year. If this and other information is readily available for the counselor, it helps to determine the direction to be followed during an interview.

A guidance department is in constant need of a quick source of information. College bulletins, career information, scholarship information, job placement information, and hints on how to study are but a few items which need to be within immediate reach of the counselor.

The possible duties of a counselor are unlimited. Some of the duties most commonly associated with a guidance and counseling program are counseling with students and parents, administering tests, accumulating information for individual and group counseling, sponsoring Career Days or College Days, helping with summer enrollment, and helping with selection of study cards.

The modern trend in counseling is not to wait for problems to come to the counselor, but to identify and work with the student before the problems arise. The idea of "pushing" your services is a part of the effort to obtain maximum performance from a student, and to encourage the student to work to his full capacity in relationship to his ability and interest. This is an expensive program because it calls for additional counselors with time to devote to the identification of students who are not necessarily discipline problems but need guidance if we expect them to work to their ability.

It is encouraging to note at this time that the guidance and counseling program is being recognized as a vital part of the modern high school. The importance of this program in secondary education has been recognized for many years, but too often it has been considered a luxury and not a necessity. Its acceptance should be a stimulus to aid in meeting the challenge of this new age in educational thinking.

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH A. DORFF

THE organization of any guidance program depends, first, on the purposes to be achieved. Bruce Shear, Chief of the Bureau of Guidance of the New York State Education Department, suggests five (5) major purposes on which tangible evaluation may be based:

1. Identify the abilities, aptitudes, and interests of the students.
2. Make students, and their parents, well aware of education and career opportunities.
3. Assist students, with the help of parents, make choices from among these opportunities, in line with their potential.

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4. Encourage students, able to do so, to complete high school and, if possible, to continue their education beyond high school.

5. Help to improve the school's total program of teaching and learning.

No program of guidance and counseling will enjoy much success unless established purposes are identified and agreed upon by the total school staff of the local school. If the above purposes are satisfactory, for example, then the next step is implementation with qualified personnel. In view of the fact that there is a serious shortage of trained guidance workers, this becomes a difficult task. Dr. Conant's recommendation of a ratio of one counselor to 250-300 students may be difficult to attain even if funds are available. Better to have one well-trained guidance officer than several untrained or incompetent persons. A good plan might be to start with one capable counselor and gradually introduce others as they get training and experience on the job.

Another important consideration in organizing and establishing guidance and counseling services is physical facilities for the guidance department. Adequate space for offices, conference rooms, cabinet and filing facilities, and access to important student records are very important.

A good guidance program must also have an important place for testing. Here the school must be cautious in the face of a recent trend to intensify the use of tests. There is danger of too much emphasis in this area and the practice of moderation might well be a virtue to be sought in this instance. Only the local school can decide the types and quantity of tests in the light of its local objectives and philosophy.

To supplement and aid the guidance department, all teachers should be encouraged to assist in this area through home-room and classroom procedures. It is difficult to conceive of a good teacher who does not perform a great amount of guidance service in his or her daily routine in the home room or classroom. This serves several important purposes aside from helping the student, most important of which is relief for the regular guidance officer who has too little time in most instances.

Finally, some methods or devices should be worked out to evaluate the effectiveness of any guidance program after a reasonable length of time has elapsed from its inception. Data secured might be used to change, eliminate, or add that might improve any on-going of guidance or counseling.

HOW CAN WE BETTER MOTIVATE THE UNDERACHIEVER AND THE INDIFFERENT STUDENT?

CHAIRMAN: *W. B. Black*, Principal, Hatch Valley High School, Hatch, New Mexico

DISCUSSANTS:

R. S. Christenson, Director of Secondary Education, High School, East Detroit, Michigan

S. P. Vick, Principal, Senior High School, Dumas, Texas

PANEL:

Calloway Taulbee, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico; and Member of the NASSP Executive Committee

Roy O. Isackson, Principal, Como Park Junior High School, St. Paul, Minnesota

Charles Veit, Principal, Queens Village Junior High School, New York, New York

Stephen T. Woodbury, Principal, High School, Fitchburg, Massachusetts

Summary of the presentation made by **RICHARD A. BALL**

Read by Calloway Taulbee

THIS is an age-old problem and is not limited to the school. Almost every area of work from the most humble jobs to the professions—including teaching—has a percentage of individuals who achieve below their capacity and who seem to have little interest in achieving better. The problem cannot be solved by applying general rules—every boy or girl is a different individual and must be handled in some special manner. Why is he so lacking in interest and effort for English and algebra? Why does he respond so poorly to the usual classroom procedures? Sometimes the pupil's record in elementary school will give significant clues as to some possible causes for his indifference to school work.

It would be fairly safe to start with the general assumption that, for some reason or reasons, the pupil has not found the learning experiences satisfying. In most cases, he is unable to do the required exercises well—either because of inadequate natural aptitude or poor educational background.

The child who has been regularly promoted from one grade level to the next in elementary school without learning to read reasonably well will soon find that he is unable to do the necessary work in high school. Certainly he will not be interested in English, history, or science if he is unable to understand the material which he is expected to read. The same

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principle applies to arithmetic, shop work, physical education, or any other area of school work. *First*, inability to do required exercises well; *second*, no resulting satisfaction from the work; *third*, little or no effort to improve; and *lastly*, indifference or even rebellion.

These pupils cannot be adequately taught in the regular classroom situation. They will gain little from the experiences and in most cases will hinder the progress of the class. The first step in motivating the under-achiever and the indifferent is to choose the right teacher. Then segregate the pupils in small classes so that the teacher can give necessary individual attention to each pupil. The curriculum should be flexible enough to permit full consideration of individual differences. If a pupil's reading skills is on the fourth-grade level, begin at that level to improve his skills—provide fourth-grade reading materials. It is important to remember that we learn by doing and that we tend to repeat the experiences that are satisfying.

Some teachers can motivate the indifferent pupil much better than others. Enthusiasm for teaching, genuine personal interest in the pupil, ability to dramatize ordinary learning situations, a sense of humor and unlimited patience are valuable qualities in working with these pupils.

Pupils who are beyond the age of compulsory attendance may be helped most by counseling them to drop out of school and take a full-time job for a time. In many cases, the added maturity of even one year makes a marked difference in their attitude toward the need for education. Furthermore, some of these pupils who have looked upon school as a "prison" rather than a privilege may develop a modest thirst for knowledge if the opportunity seems to be slipping away from them.

Summary of the presentation made by ROY O. ISACKSEN

IT IS a rather common practice to group pupils who test below 80 on an individual intelligence test in so-called special classes. However, it is assumed in this presentation that we will deal with the treatment of pupils above this group on the intelligence scale.

It is impossible to separate the topic of motivation from the total educational program of the school. It is inextricably interwoven with a philosophy of education, school administration, class size, organization of the faculty for the study of problems, teacher attitudes, a guidance program, discipline practices, marking and reporting practices, promotion, and failure. Indeed any attempt to improve the motivation of pupils must inevitably be concerned with every aspect of school life.

Many schools are so organized that the teachers have an opportunity to come to grips with this problem. Where this has been done, the faculty

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has developed a school philosophy which recognizes the worth and importance of each individual pupil. It is organized into departmental groups and committees for the study of problems of concern to the teachers. Under the leadership of the school counselor, a testing program is carried on which includes intelligence and achievement tests, diagnostic tests in the subject fields, personality and vocational interest inventories. Corrective reading and corrective mathematics classes small enough to be effective are provided for pupils who need this service. A workable plan for extending guidance services into the classroom has been devised. When two subjects are combined, commonly English and social studies, the number of pupils for each teacher to know and understand is reduced. Time in addition to a preparation period is provided for pupil and parent conferences and conferences with other teachers concerning a particular pupil. A faculty study of individual differences among pupils has brought about an awareness of the necessity for reducing as much as possible the unfair, unequal competition for grades. Pupil failure and the threat of failure are at a minimum.

To present a grass roots approach to this problem of motivation, I asked the members of our faculty to submit statements of methods or techniques which were found to be helpful. Individualized treatment for the pupil was stressed in each response. I shall try to summarize these replies.

Knowing the individual, his interests and ability, and establishing a good relationship are important first steps. This can be facilitated through conferences with the pupil and parent. Find a way to link his outside interests with school work. Give recognition whenever possible since each one of us needs a feeling of success. This can be done by reading samples of good work, displaying papers and projects, and giving opportunities to present hobbies and interesting experiences. Encouragement, patience, sympathy, and friendliness are essential ingredients. Assignments have to be differentiated and must lie within the individual's ability range.

It is often possible to interest a pupil and to give him prestige with an individualized project such as the following:

- Prepare a quiz for the rest of the class on some daily work—current events, mathematics assignment, grammar, sentence structure, a TV program, a period of history.

- Prepare a unit test and work out the grading system.

- Evaluate some paragraphs of reading material and present to the class.

- Make an individual field trip and prepare an exclusive eye-witness report for the whole class.

- Do some library research on a subject on which the class is unable to proceed because it lacks some basic information and then report to the class.

- Make a special graph or other bulletin board display that will contribute to the class.

To stay on a subject to the point of "complete competence" makes for boredom. Reteach at another time if necessary. Varied activity is the key

in many situations because of a short attention span. The pupil "team" approach is sometimes helpful. Assign a highly motivated student, but not necessarily a high achiever, as a co-worker with the under-achiever. Mutual helping is the goal to be emphasized. A high I.Q. under-achiever may be inspired to do outstanding work by appointing him as a tutor to a group of average or below-average pupils. Placing the under-achiever on a committee and insuring in every way possible that it be a successful one may be effective. Sometimes reading is the problem and special materials are needed, or assignment to the corrective reading class may be recommended. Pupils appreciate quick, regular measurements of progress which show their growth. They derive immediate satisfaction from seeing that they are learning things that will help them to fulfill their needs.

In conclusion I should like to quote directly from the response of one member of our faculty: "If you can accept the indifferent student and not be just another nagging teacher, it often helps."

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES VEIT

THE junior high-school principals have to recognize and distinguish between the slow learner who does not learn at normal speed and the reluctant learner who refuses to come to school or refuses to do any work when he does come. The slow learner may be slow because of limited mental ability; however, he may be of normal intelligence or even of high intelligence, but shows an achievement lag due to late entrance, truancy, or other handicapping background. He shows subnormal school progress on the basis of achievement tests and teacher opinion.

The reluctant learner may have several or all of the above characteristics. He, too, may also have normal or even above normal intelligence. Factors such as a broken home and lack of parental guidance may account for lack of motivation for learning and frequent truancy. Therefore, it is necessary to make provision both for the slow learner and for the reluctant learner.

Curriculum adaptations are necessary. This involves setting up minimum essentials in a common body of knowledge and in basic skills, vocabulary, reading, writing, spelling, computing. We have found that emphasis on safety education, consumer education, vocational and personal guidance, broader industrial art experience is helpful. The reluctant reader needs a program rich in occupational interests and geared to individual aptitudes. The junior high school, with its many industrial

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arts experiences, has been particularly successful because of the nature of its organization in this field. In presenting educational experiences, there is need for problem-centered units based on pupil interests, job opportunities, and problems of daily living. To develop needed concepts, core programs with well-planned use of community resources help pupils of limited experience and short attention span.

The reluctant learner also needs an extended guidance program to make possible systematic and thorough individual guidance. In working with these pupils, social agencies, particularly the teachers of the attendance service bureau, have been very helpful.

It is not enough to segregate pupils; it is necessary to provide a reconstruction of curriculum in such fashion that it will meet their needs. There has been considerable success where the slow learners have worked with a second-track plan which is especially prepared for and suited to them. When English and social studies are taught as a core program, with emphasis on citizenship and oral communication, the remedial reading program is successful to the point of expectancy. The slow learner can be involved in the mathematics program where the material is limited to social arithmetic with constant emphasis on meaningful experiences. The pupil in the ninth year has a special motivation for improved work in mathematics and reading because these subjects are basic to his success in vocational school. The science program must concern itself with simpler concepts developed around pre-vocational interests. It has been found that, as these youngsters get older, experiences in woodworking, electric shop, ceramics, metal shop, homemaking, and art work are extremely valuable. The health education program needs to concern itself with proper bodily care and the music and art program with a means for release from tension. Participation in social activities, service squads, student council, and dances have important values for the slow learner because they contribute to his personal security and his wholesome adjustment to other pupils.

One final word; it has been our experience that the slow learner, because he comes in contact with the normal and bright pupils, is very sensitive to his inability to do school work on the expected level. The parents of these youngsters contribute to their insecurity by insisting that these children are lazy and could do better if they wanted to. Therefore, it is necessary that the secondary school educate parents to see that such attitudes contribute to the child's feeling of inferiority. It also makes the reluctant learner even more antisocial than he is.

Summary of the presentation made by STEPHEN T. WOODBURY

IT HAS been said many times that we are in the midst of an educational revolution. We have been working for the past fifty years to give an education to all American youth. Eighty-eight per cent of the youth of high-school age are now in school. Also it is to be noted, that in this century, four years has been added to the length of the education of the average youth. This is a tremendous achievement of the American people.

This revolution has now entered a second phase. We are not only involved in great numbers, but we are also involved in our thinking about education and in our approach to education. We are concerned with the reorganization and with the modernization of secondary education. We all need courage in accelerating its program of evaluation and appraisal. "Flexibility and diversity of patterns should be encouraged, and increased emphasis placed upon the qualitative side of education" writes Lawrence C. Derthick, United States Commissioner of Education. We must be alert to reasonable experiments which hold out promise of enabling us to get more quality out of our product. Two of the points emphasized frequently at the Conference on the American High School were a demand for quality and far-reaching changes in staffing, equipping, and operating the school. Conditions are changing very rapidly. We must move. We must think about what to teach and how to teach. Here is the opportunity for us in the high school to challenge our own society.

Dr. Max Lerner, professor of American Civilization and Institutions at Brandeis University, states clearly what our fundamental philosophy is and the problem which presents itself. "We insist that these young people, born with such unequal characteristics, abilities, and talents, should all of them have the same access to the same kinds of opportunities to develop whatever talents are in them. That is the essence and distillation of American experience. But as I look at the educational system I reflect sadly that as yet we do not have access in this sense. We have been trying for it, but we do not yet have it. In terms of all youngsters having the same door to go through or the same road to go along toward their goal, the fact is that, for many of them, this is a road of 'blocked mobility.'"

During the quiet years in American education, the accepted policy was to pass on youngsters to the next grade. Classes were divided into levels of ability. Youngsters proceeded generally in orderly fashion through the grades. Social promotion came to be accepted educational practice. Some youngsters soon awakened to realize they were getting something for nothing. This practice came about because of the insistence of society that every youngster be in school. The attendance laws kept the misfit,

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the uninterested, and the incapable in school so that by our promotion system they arrived in high school. This caused the problem of "blocked mobility" for this type of youngster, the class, and the teacher.

We all believe and pay a lot of lip service to individual differences. We need to put into practice broader programs to meet these differences. We have made great strides in educating the mentally retarded. We are rising to the challenge to offer strong curricula to the academically talented. It seems to me that the next group to get attention is the slow learner and the indifferent pupil who has no commitment to work, who is an unwilling learner. They have had no release of motivation. They have become retarded in their subject matter so that a special school program has been set up in the junior high school. They know they will be passed on to high school without extending themselves at all. They will remain in slow groups. With this policy and practice, the release of motivation will probably never come so that we can see it in school.

The lever to pry loose this motivation and to get work and commitment from this group is an experiment we hope to try as soon as space is available. This is one of those experiments that seem to offer a reasonable chance of success. Youngsters in this group will be told in the junior high-school years that they will not enter high school unless their level of accomplishment improves to a point which assures them of rewards not failures. Those who do not rise to this level because of lack of ability or ambition will continue in a special course of terminal education at sixteen years or later. This educational operation will give the youngsters with poor academic abilities a chance to do something equal to their intellectual level. Also to the under-achiever, the unwilling or the indifferent pupil, who learns he must produce to get into high school, it may mean the release of the motivation for which we are looking. We are anxious to improve the quality of our schools. This seems to offer some hope.

To do this we have got to spend more money to obtain and retain good teachers. It is necessary to broaden the avenues of learning if we are to improve the quality of education for the great majority of our young people. I believe this would change somewhat the basic common denominator a lot of young people have—"getting something for nothing," "who gets what?", and "what's in it for me?"

WHAT DESIRABLE CURRICULUM CHANGES IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TO PROVIDE QUALITY EDUCATION?

CHAIRMAN: *Wendell H. Wilson*, Head, Section on Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Denver, Colorado

DISCUSSANTS:

Autry L. Bailey, Principal, High School, Pell City, Alabama

Dean M. Van Landingham, Principal, Forest Hills High School, Grand Rapids, Michigan

PANEL:

Sister Mary Janet, S. C., Supervisor, Sisters of Charity, Mount St. Joseph, Ohio

Mack J. Spears, Principal, McDonogh No. 35 Senior High School, New Orleans, Louisiana

Virgil R. Walker, Director, Educational Statistics Branch, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

David B. Austin, Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

Summary of the presentation made by SISTER MARY JANET, S. C.

THE term "curriculum" properly defined means the entire experience of students under the direction of the school, and it is in this sense that changes aimed toward improved quality should be considered. Four suggestions present themselves as particularly significant, and even as essential to high quality.

The first pertains to content of courses. Most curriculums do not need to add more courses since practically all aspects of our intellectual and cultural heritage are being offered in one form or another. What is essential in relation to subject matter is that there be a reorganization with particular attention to scope and sequence to bring about the following results:

1. That each year builds on the preceding and so provides a steady progression from elementary through junior and senior high school.
2. That there is no attempt to cover an entire field by including some reference to every phase of it. Instead important concepts should be more thoroughly presented.
3. That basic ideas are well taught and students inspired to complete knowledge on their own either in school or later, and that they learn where and how to continue the search for truth.
4. That individual differences are reliably cared for.

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5. That the present needs of society are adequately met through stress on those which are most pressing, but with a proper balance preserved between arts and sciences, between immediate and long-range objectives.

This leads to the second suggestion which has to do with method. The aim of quality education must go far beyond mere acquisition of a body of knowledge to be stored away and drawn on at examination time. In order that students may see the relation of learning to life and know how to apply it, there must be wider and more efficient use of:

1. Problem solving which involves identifying problems, collecting and organizing significant data, trying solutions, and evaluating results.

2. Individual work which permits depth study on the part of the gifted and solid mastery of minimum essentials by the less gifted.

3. Wide varieties of instructional materials.

A third and fundamental change should be sought in the motivation of senior high-school students. Strictly speaking, the highest motivating factor in students at every level of education should be the desire to develop to the fullest whatever talents they possess because of native endowment and previous educational experience so that they may fulfill their role in society and contribute to the general welfare. Students so animated would eagerly seek quality in performance. Through the years, however, we have relied heavily on a constantly increasing number of unworthy values. Students take a course merely to get a credit; they study only for the sake of a mark, regardless of whether or not its attainment really meant effort on their part; they try to do well on a national testing program. These aims are not bad if considered only as intermediate ends or as road signs pointing the way to higher ones. But they prevent high achievement if they become ends in themselves. We must discard the idea that attaining twelve or sixteen credits in anything really means that one has a good high-school education, since the end product with sixteen credits can easily be an incompletely developed person.

Finally, the whole process of evaluation needs change. This is certainly not a new idea. On the contrary it is something we have been working on for many years and until ten years ago we had made some progress. But competition for scholarships has created a trend to evaluate practically all results in terms of some sort of national test. Again the tests in themselves are not bad and may serve many useful purposes. But attaining a high average on them is no sign a student is doing quality work in school. Indeed many with high native endowment do well on tests but are very inadequate in school and in life.

Desirable curriculum changes, therefore, must bring depth to content and relationship to present need; methods of presentation which meet individual differences and provide valid motivation; and evaluation which in some sense at least gives a clue to progress in all aspects of personality development.

Summary of the presentation made by MACK J. SPEARS

CRITICISM, justifiable and unjustifiable, has been directed at the American high school during the past three years. Let us be forcibly mindful that criticism, unless it results in desirable changes for effectuating quality education, has little value. Before attempting to discuss a few of the changes in the curriculum which are mandatory, it seems appropriate to re-examine the purpose of the high school in the American Society in order that this major emphasis might be kept in proper focus. We take the cue for determining this purpose from those documents which serve as the foundation of the American society in which we find stated: (1) the belief in the general welfare of all people, (2) civil liberty or the inalienable rights of the individual, (3) the consent of the governed, (4) the appeal to reason in solving problems, and (5) the attainment of human happiness.

The foregoing fundamental concepts provide the frame of reference for the goals which the curriculum of the senior high school should serve. It seems logical for us to visualize that the high-school curriculum should be designed to provide experiences which will develop: (1) persons who have minds trained to think, to plan, to create, to organize, and minds which are free to think; (2) persons who have the bases for certain competences and skills; (3) persons who are flexible to meet all situations with convictions and with courage; (4) persons who are adaptable to change and who can accept change without disturbing their equilibrium through fear of an imagined catastrophe or fear that omega is at hand; (5) persons who can be truly important and yet recognize the dignity and worth of all individuals; and (6) persons who have the humility to recognize the supremacy of a power beyond themselves.

Against this background, what changes in the curriculum should be made to provide quality education for achieving the desired ends? In an effort to illustrate a few of the changes, brief reference will be made to an experiment, "Organizing for the Improvement of Instruction—Three-Track Plan," which is being conducted in the McDonogh No. 35 Senior High School. (The McDonogh No. 35 Senior High School serves 500 pupils with an academic oriented curriculum.) The experiment is predicated upon the assumptions that (1) the high-school curriculum must facilitate the accomplishment of the fundamental goals outlined and (2), if the goals are not being achieved, it becomes incumbent upon the school family (the faculty and staff, the pupils, the parents, the board of education) to effect whatever adjustments are necessary in order to make the school a more functional asset in serving society.

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The faculty assumed leadership in initiating the steps for determining what changes were necessary in the substantive aspect of the curriculum and what adjustments should have been made in the procedural aspect. An exhaustive analysis of achievement test results, scholastic aptitude test data, teacher estimates of pupil achievement, and pupil performances in follow-up activities after high school pointed up the need for changes, as well as the nature and extent of the changes. It became a well-established fact that alterations were imperative in both curricular content and process.

After analysis came the task of interpreting the findings to pupils and parents in order to create an awareness of the need for changes. However, the task did not end at this point, because it was essential to achieve an acceptance of the need for changes and the willingness to make an honest break from the customary pattern. This was based upon the assumption that learning takes place with greater effectiveness when all persons immediately concerned in the educative process are well informed regarding what is taking place. The success of the new curricular program initiated in the fall of 1958 gave credence to the assumption.

The analyzed data held significant and specific implications for future curriculum planning in the McDonogh No. 35 Senior High School. Generally, it was evident that the curriculum should be revised to focus emphasis upon new concepts in science and mathematics; greater depth in the humanities and the social studies; and more opportunities in the cultural arts to fit students for adjusting to the political, economic, and technological changes, and for living in the social order resulting from these changes. Following through on this fact, the new programs of study for the pupils reflected expansion in breadth and they also reflected vertical expansion in the various courses. For example: four years of English, designed to serve the specific need of the student are now offered to all students. At least three years of social studies are required. Even the less able pupils are required to pursue a minimum of two years in science, mathematics, and foreign language. The more able students are expected to complete four years in these latter courses.

It was quite evident that motivation as a factor in learning must be revitalized. Although the new program included provisions for attacking this problem from several angles, the major approach was that of establishing an organizational framework in which pupils might be challenged to work up to their maximum potentialities. Therefore, in light of the pupils' previous performances, they were assigned to one of three tracks, designated to mean speed at which learning had previously taken place.

An area for final consideration in this discussion concerns the changes which must be made in the attitude of the teacher as a factor in the curriculum. Fortunately, the faculty at McDonogh 35 Senior High School soon realized the importance of reorienting attitudes toward teaching as a profession. Specifically, the faculty readjusted its thinking regarding

pupils, regarding course content, and regarding grading. Actually, the new attitudes of the teachers had a tremendous effect upon the attitudes of the pupils. A new seriousness of purpose on the part of the teachers became a motivation to the students to improve their efforts to achieve better quality education.

Summary of the presentation made by VIRGIL R. WALKER

THE emergence of Russia as a satellite and space power was sensational and impressive; its impact was world-wide and not without salutary effects for all of us. Many questioned how such rapid progress could be attained and some invariably gave credit to the Russian system of education. Some were equally vociferous in their belief that our system of education had failed to produce qualified scientists and technicians in sufficient numbers. Although subsequent information has indicated that our failure to be first in "space" was probably due to decisions regarding management and finances, critics of our school—both friendly and unfriendly—have shown an increased interest in our schools.

Professional educators in general have welcomed this awakened interest not only of critics but also of the general public. It has enabled us to present many of the ideas we had long before "Sputnik" to strengthen our school system.

THE FEDERAL ROLE

The people of the United States reacted quickly through the 85th Congress which passed *The National Defense Education Act of 1958* enabling the Commissioner of Education to intensify the role of the U. S. Office of Education to improve the Nation's educational program through a partnership with state and local school systems. At the secondary-school level, there have been provided funds for the acquisition of laboratory or other special equipment for science, mathematics, and modern foreign language teaching and for minor remodeling of laboratory or other space to be used for such equipment. State educational agencies have also utilized grants for the expansion and improvement of supervisory or related services in these fields. The growth in the number of state supervisors has been tremendous.

Funds have also been provided to enable states to establish, maintain, and improve programs of testing and counseling and guidance in secondary schools to discover the latent talents or special aptitudes of high-school students and to assist institutions of higher education in the operation of short-term or regular session institutes for people engaged in or

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preparing to engage in counseling and guidance in secondary schools. As an added inducement many people, engaged or preparing to engage in counseling and guidance in public secondary schools who attended such an institute, received a stipend of \$75 per week plus \$15 for each dependent for the period of attendance.

Special emphasis has been given to the improvement of the teaching of foreign languages through funds for the establishment and operation of centers to further teaching of modern foreign languages not generally taught in this country, and to provide for studies necessary for a full understanding of the areas in which such languages are commonly used. Funds have also been provided for attendance at and the operation of short-term or regular session institutes for advanced training, particularly in the use of new teaching methods or instructional materials, for individuals engaged in or preparing to engage in instruction of any modern foreign language in elementary or secondary schools. Other desirable developments have been the increased interest in research and experimentation in the more effective use of television, radio, motion pictures, and related media for educational purposes and the improvement of statistical services of state educational agencies.

The Nation's education program has also been strengthened by the provision of student loans at low rates of interest to students in institutions of higher education with the special inducement that one half of any loan (plus interest) is canceled for service as a full-time teacher in a public elementary or secondary school in a state, at the rate of 10 per cent of the amount of the loan plus interest for each complete academic year of such service.

The National Science Foundation, as well as other foundations, has been active in sponsoring institutes for mathematics and science teachers and in the development and try-out of modern content material and techniques of instruction in the fields of physics, biology, chemistry, and mathematics.

Specialists in the U. S. Office of Education have vigorously implemented *The National Defense Education Act of 1958*. Additionally they have continued to work with national associations and foundations and with state and local school agencies to encourage desirable curriculum changes. They are also increasing their efforts to foster the improvement of both pre-service and in-service education of teachers.

CURRICULUM CHANGES TO PROVIDE QUALITY EDUCATION

This increased interest and effort at Federal, state, and local level and the renewed activity by foundations and associations have had an impact on the curriculum in our senior high schools. Although the resulting changes appear to be desirable, there should be further research and experimentation to test their weaknesses as well as their strengths.

Many schools are experimenting with modern content and techniques in mathematics; others are reorganizing their offering generally in terms of traditional courses with an emphasis on various types of courses for the senior year, some of which are designed to provide advance credit for college. Capable students in several schools are studying algebra in the eighth grade and beginning geometry in the ninth grade. This plan enables these students to add an extra year of advanced mathematics in the senior high school. Likewise there appears to be a trend to complete general science in the eighth grade and to begin a laboratory science, usually biology, in the ninth grade. This procedure provides an opportunity for the interested and talented student to complete not only chemistry and physics, but also advanced science courses while still in high school. Some of these courses provide for advanced standing. Some schools are working with the modern content and techniques in physics and are anticipating the utilization of those in chemistry and biology.

There have been important forward strides in the teaching of modern foreign languages. In addition to being introduced earlier, often in the junior high school and sometimes in the elementary school, students have a real opportunity to obtain a mastery of at least one foreign language as recommended by Dr. Conant. Better prepared modern foreign language teachers adept in the use of audio-visual aids and foreign language laboratories and skilled in the aural-oral method are making significant contributions.

An increase in the number and quality of programs of testing, counseling, and guidance in the senior high school is paying dividends. Students are learning to assess their capabilities and to choose courses both in terms of quantity and quality. Most high-school graduates today complete more than 16 Carnegie units, which was the standard when our generation graduated.

High schools are giving increased recognition to individual differences, often through homogeneous grouping with enrichment, special approaches and content, and acceleration for the talented. Some schools are reporting considerable success with various "track" plans. Others are following Dr. Conant's recommendation that "every student has an individual program" which tends to provide greater flexibility.

There also appears to be a trend for a larger number of school systems to offer summer sessions to enable students not only to "make up subjects," but also to take additional academic and enrichment courses. Some schools are planning longer school days and longer school years. All these developments appear to contribute to quality education.

NEEDED RESEARCH AND EXPERIMENTATION

As stated previously, these curriculum developments should be subjected to thorough investigation. In our attempts to strengthen the quality of education in mathematics, science, and foreign language, we must not

overlook the necessity to improve in the other general and specialized fields. In our efforts to provide for the talented, we must not fail to provide a better education for the less capable student who too often drops out of high school because our program does not truly meet his needs. The dropout today finds it most difficult to find satisfactory employment in our highly technical society. The modern high school must search for and find an answer to this problem.

Summary of the presentation made by DAVID B. AUSTIN

WE ALREADY have much education of high quality. We seek more of a higher quality because of the obvious demands upon all who would survive, who would live a full life, who would accept their responsibilities to live as decent people in a world of frighteningly intimate citizenship. This is the task we face both today and tomorrow as we seek to improve the curriculum.

First, we must bring to bear upon the program of our schools, and particularly our secondary schools, the results of sound inquiry into the kinds of attitudes and skills and knowledge which are needed today and will probably be needed tomorrow by decent responsible people. To accomplish this, we must use the significant findings of research carefully analyzed and interpreted, which are relevant to the task. We must denounce proposals which are defiant of such research findings and refuse to temporize or dilute our adherence to intelligent progress through appeals to so-called prudence, to convenience, or to expediency. The only intelligent way to improve education is through the application of intelligence.

Next, we must find and capitalize on means which will increase the rate of urgently needed change. This, no doubt, involves further knowledge on the part of all as to the complex business of transmitting the enthusiasm for, as well as the content of, the needed change. Communication of knowledge and transmission of devotion to the significance of that knowledge, is hard work. It is complex work—and occasionally dangerous. The bleached professional skeletons of missionary martyrs can be found here and there across the desert of pedagogical wastelands. Some of these souls forgot that people are humans with ideas, ideals, passions, and prejudices. They also forgot that fools can be persuasive at times.

I would next suggest that curriculum changes will be made only by those who teach and those who learn. They will not be made by distinguished scholars in remote towers under the shadow of television transmitters. They will not be brought about through carefully prepared

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papers published in professional journals—not even in THE BULLETIN of our Association. No, we may pontificate on the campus or confer in convention—and both of these activities are important if for no other reason than that they help us to get things off our chests, to meet nice people, and to share concerns for tomorrow's crowded classrooms. The real improvement takes place at the point of critical contact between those who teach and those who learn. I suspect that most of the conscious improvement takes place in conventional classrooms, although much will also happen in halls and laboratories, on playing fields and in choral groups. Admitting an inclination toward optimism, I would insist that good young people, when privileged to work with interesting devoted teachers, somehow bring about the only genuine improvement of the curriculum.

Finally, it is clear to me that the charge must be given over and over again to those who would lead. True leadership in any good school is a subtle thing. It is not a series of mandates nor pithy humor in the second-period bulletin. Rather, it is that modest and sincere interest in the things which are going on in classrooms and halls whereby young people are helped to be better intellectually, morally, physically, and spiritually. It is the force which prompts the administrator constantly to seek answers to the question, "What can I do to help make the work of each teacher more effective so that no young person is denied the best possible education?" Without this kind of leadership, teaching can be pretty painful and learning a dismal business.

The changes in curriculum of our high schools must make sense. They must be based upon sound knowledge skilfully used by devoted teachers. This is not a simple order. But let's not give up on the search for truth, both as to what is to be taught and how. Our chances of finding devoted teachers will certainly be enhanced thereby. And this, in turn, leads to educational quality.

HOW HAVE SCHOOLS MET THE PROBLEM OF ELIMINATING STUDY HALLS?

CHAIRMAN: *William P. Matthews*, Assistant Principal, Ruskin High School, Hickman Mills, Missouri

DISCUSSANTS:

Morris C. Jones, Jr., Principal, High School, Stevensville, Maryland

Oscar P. Schneider, Principal, Collinwood High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by **LESLIE W. KINDRED**

RESearch findings and personal experiences with study halls have convinced a good many secondary-school principals that the number of study halls in the weekly schedule should be either reduced sharply or else eliminated all together. They point out that the pupils who carry full schedules with no study halls receive better marks than those who have several, and that these same pupils engage in more curricular activities as well. They also emphasize the fact that the typical teacher-supervisor of a study hall is not competent to assist pupils with study problems in all fields of learning. But their main concern turns on the finding that pupils who have the most study periods are nonacademics who need them least, and that the boredom associated with sitting in study halls day after day creates disciplinary problems which force those in charge to assume the role of policemen rather than supervisors of directed study.

DEVICES FOR REDUCING STUDY HALLS

Principals have employed several devices, with varying degrees of success, to reduce the number of study halls in their schools. A rather common one is that of limiting the number which a pupil may have in a week. Typically, the number is five or one a day. This forces the pupil to fill the remaining free periods in his schedule with elective subjects. If a limit is not established, a similar result may be obtained by allowing the use of study-hall time for advanced work in mathematics and science, by providing vocational speakers and occupational films during study periods, by scheduling both individual and group guidance conferences at least once a week, by encouraging pupils to take music lessons during this time, or by offering the option of driver training for those who meet eligibility requirements.

A more subtle approach to the problem is made in some schools by offering the pupil a choice of study hall or an elective. This is done on the

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theory that many pupils prefer to work in an elective instead of spending their time watching the clock in a study hall. Actually, this theory has operated quite well, especially where elective subjects fit into the interest patterns of adolescents, such as personal-use typing, arts and crafts, ceramics, music, auto mechanics, and television repair.

Another practice that appears to achieve a similar result is that of offering a wide range of elective subjects and, at the same time, introducing double periods in chemistry, physics, industrial arts, and home-making. As a consequence, some pupils have only three to five study periods a week, while others have none. And even those who have only three to five free periods a week may prefer to use them for elective subjects.

A more drastic reduction in study halls is brought about in schools requiring 25 class periods for all pupils in a 30-period week, and with further requirement that three of the remaining five periods be assigned to health and physical education. The pupil may then use the two remaining ones for either study halls or a minor elective subject. To provide time for cocurricular activities, an extra period may be added at the end of the day. Where this was done in one school, by adding four periods instead of five, the principal reported that practically no one has a study hall in two of these periods and in the other two about 50 per cent of the pupils go to classrooms for supervised study.

One more device that deserves attention is the senior privilege program. In schools having this program, seniors may spend their free time in a special lounge or an activity room supervised by a member of the student council. Whether or not such a room is provided, they may go to the library, use office-practice equipment, act as tutors to other pupils, or observe teachers if they are interested in becoming teachers themselves.

DEVICES FOR ELIMINATING STUDY HALLS

It is obvious that some of the devices just described are but a step away from the complete elimination of traditional study halls. This is a short step and one that principals have taken in a number of secondary schools. It involves either reducing the number of periods in the day and making each period longer, increasing the load carried by pupils, or doing both. Generally the combination is adopted.

Where the five-period day is followed, with periods running from 50 to 70 minutes in length, pupils are required to take five majors plus health and physical education. Classes in major subjects usually meet four times a week so that five periods in the week are left free. Two to three of these free periods are taken up with health and physical education and those remaining are filled with minor electives or activities. There are no study halls.

Where the six-period day is followed, pupils are required to take five majors which meet respectively five times a week. The sixth period is

taken up with health and physical education, electives in minor subjects, or participation in cocurricular activities. In some instances, only four majors are required plus health and physical education and two minor electives so that the entire daily and weekly schedules are filled and no room is left for study halls. Another variation found in the six-period day is that of holding to five majors along with health and physical education, but requiring that the remaining periods be used in noncredit subjects, such as developmental reading, mathematics review, English review, and accelerated science.

Where seven- and eight-period days are retained, the problem of eliminating study halls is met by insisting on five majors, some of them meeting six times a week, and then adding health and physical education, two to five periods in cocurricular activities, and one or more minor electives in art, music, shop, homemaking, typing, and driver education.

Some departures from these prevailing arrangements may be found in a scattering of schools. For example, a three-period day with each period 100 minutes in length and each subject scheduled to meet two or three times a week: or, a six-class schedule in a five-period day, with four classes meeting four times a week at the same periods daily, while the fifth class is staggered at different periods during the week. All such departures, however, accomplish the same purpose; namely, that of eliminating study halls.

SUBSTITUTE PLANS

With the sharp reduction and complete elimination of study halls, other measures have been introduced to preserve the principle and improve the practice of aiding pupils and supervising their study. In schools where a few study halls remain, these measures may include (1) study halls with groups corresponding in size to normal classes and in rooms containing dictionaries, encyclopedias, and pertinent supplies; (2) specially equipped classrooms and laboratories arranged by subjects and with a qualified teacher-supervisor in charge of each subject group; (3) library-study hall combinations with no more than 30 pupils at one time; (4) imposition of assignments by teacher-supervisors on pupils who have nothing to do; and (5) inservice training of teacher-supervisors with reference to standards of study hall management and procedures for helping pupils with their work.

Some schools have resorted to an extra period at the end of the day for supervised study. Teachers are stationed in their regular classrooms and pupils may consult them about their study programs. Pupils may also schedule conferences with teachers during this period, and those doing poorly in any subject may be required to report regularly for supervised study. Because the last period arrangement has proven unsatisfactory in some schools, alternate periods on successive days are used instead in the regular schedule. These periods may be the first on Monday, second on Tuesday, and so on for the week.

The most popular measure, however, is that of setting aside a portion of each class period for supervised study with the subject teacher. If the period is 60 minutes in length, then 40 minutes are assigned to regular class work and 20 minutes to supervised study. The division of time varies, of course, with schools because of the length of periods and the needs of pupils. One of the difficulties associated with this plan is that some teachers may monopolize the entire period for regular classwork and thereby deny pupils the opportunity to study. To meet this difficulty, the use of a warning signal has been introduced for letting teachers know that the supervised study portion of the period should begin. The inflexibility of this arrangement leaves much to be desired, particularly when a teacher is in the middle of a profitable activity and is forced to drop it because of the rigid division of time.

QUESTIONS RAISED

The growing tendency toward longer periods, heavier pupil loads, elimination of study halls, and the use of divided class periods raises some significant questions that must be looked at carefully. Among the questions are these: (1) Do teachers know how to use the lengthened periods to real advantage in directing the learning activities of pupils? (2) Because pupils are required to take more subjects where study halls have been reduced or eliminated, how much homework is assigned to them, and is the amount too heavy? (3) What, if any, is the relationship between heavier pupil loads and the rate of failure in major subjects? (4) What effect should heavier pupil loads have on graduation requirements? (5) Does an extra class period for supervised study either at the end of the day or during the day amount to an added teaching period for which adjustment should be made in the load of the teacher? (6) Why are teachers more competent to handle supervised study in a divided class period than they are in traditional study halls? (7) Do pupils in divided class periods regard the time allowed for study as adequate in the preparation of home assignments? (8) Is there any evidence that supervised study in a divided class period will produce more intensive and better study? (9) And why do principals fail to recognize that good teaching is the directing and developing of proper attitudes, sound skills, and enduring habits of study in regular class instruction?

Summary of the presentation made by C. C. STANARD

WHEN the topic of whether or not study halls should be eliminated is discussed, one frequently hears such complaints as, "study halls are a waste of a student's time." If this is true then why have study halls? The

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answer to this is not easy. Many problems are involved when study halls are eliminated.

One of the first problems involved is the employment of more teachers, and more classroom space must be provided.

In planning a new building, the study hall can be left out of the architect's plans. In a building already in use, the question arises: can the present study hall be converted into extra classrooms?

In studying Dr. J. Lloyd Trump's *Image of the Future*, perhaps the large room could be adapted to large-group instruction. Many administrators feel that this new approach has much merit and will become rather common in the near future.

Many schools operate on the six-period day with class periods varying in length from fifty-five to sixty-five minutes. When study halls have been eliminated, many schools have increased the classroom time. I believe we all agree that some time must be given in school to study; it cannot all be done outside of the school day.

There are many arguments against students studying in large groups. True, you always have the conscientious boy or girl who will work in most any environment. Too often, in a study hall, the supervisor must become a police officer. He cannot or will not have the time to help a student with an assignment. In many cases the supervisor does not know what the classroom teacher expects of the student.

In a small group such as a normal classroom, it seems logical to assume that students could study much better. Classroom teachers must take the last part of each period, perhaps fifteen minutes, for supervised study. Under the direction of a good teacher, it seems that better study habits could be developed.

Many colleges criticize the student on the basis that he does not know how to study. It seems logical, therefore, that a student could profit greatly from a situation in which the teacher could be of assistance to him. It is extremely important that a teacher be able to teach a student how to study.

I believe that much in-service training is necessary before study halls can be eliminated. Teachers must be willing to try this new approach. They must remember that time must be allocated in class for study and then they must be able to teach the student how to study and to teach him to take best advantage of his study time.

Another problem which arises is the availability of the library. In many schools, the library is also a part of the study hall or is adjacent to it. When study halls are eliminated, the library becomes less accessible. Many schools have found it necessary to build up a library in each classroom. This adds greatly to the cost of instruction.

In planning a new building which will have no study halls, it seems wise to provide for a large library where a whole class or classes accompanied by the teacher could come and work for a period when necessary.

A good guidance and counseling program must also be in operation. It is very important that the student be guided into a wise selection of courses to meet his individual needs. Test results and other personal data must be interpreted to the teachers so that they have a better understanding of the educational background of each student in their classes.

WHAT ARE SOME NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN PROVIDING ADEQUATE SALARIES FOR PRINCIPALS?

CHAIRMAN: *George E. Shanno*, Principal, Senior High School, Hazleton, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

R. Earl Farnsworth, Principal, Senior High School, Fort Smith, Arkansas

J. H. Noel, Principal, North Nashville High School, Nashville, Tennessee

PANEL:

Vincent B. Claypool, Principal, Sequoia High School, Redwood City, California

Edmond R. Slagle, Principal, San Jacinto Junior High School, Midland, Texas

S. L. Mayes, Principal, Southeast High School, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma

Summary of the presentation made by VINCENT B. CLAYPOOL

PROFESSOR Calvin Grider recently has stated his opposition to the ratio method of determining administration salaries.¹ In a sense he may be right, as the job of the principal is different from that of the teacher, but the hard fact of life is that teachers with their stronger bargaining power and short supply have been able to secure salary concessions of considerably higher percentage than have high-school principals. The ratio principle has been resorted to as a refuge from the annual battle of convincing boards of education that the principal's job is one which deserves special monetary recognition. This system has its comforts, but it also has its pitfalls.

Teachers are asking, "Why should administrators take a free ride at our expense?" Some boards of education and citizen groups are saying,

¹ Grider, Calvin, "Why Base an Administrator's Pay on That of a Teacher?" *Nations Schools*, December 1959.

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"We are paying administrators too much." One craft group of teachers has gone so far as to say, "Why not elect a principal-teacher from our own ranks each year?" If the chorus becomes loud and organized the ratio system will soon die and administrators will find themselves in a more unenviable position.

I feel strongly that under present circumstances we must maintain some sort of a ratio system, but, in addition to that, we are obligated to take a long look at our responsibilities and relationships. I once knew an outstanding superintendent who was regarded as one of the ablest public relations administrators in the United States, but he lost his job when he forgot that his teachers were a part of his public.

We must demonstrate our ability, our integrity, our scholarship, our breadth of background, our understanding, and our leadership to our own teachers if we are to be accepted in their bargaining. Ineptitude on our part will easily alienate us from our strongest allies. We must convince our communities of our leadership ability and of our interest in the best product which they have, their children. This is accomplished directly and also by our public relations representatives, the pupils. To do these things we dare not lose touch with the latest developments in the field of education, politics, and business. Above all, we must free ourselves from the slavery of paper and minutiae, and apply ourselves to our great task of personnel engineering.

I commend to you the listening era, the compassionate heart, the understanding mind, the thirsting intellect, the guiding hand, and unswerving fortitude. If you can possess these things, a firm foundation is laid for the determination of your value to your school and your district.

At the hour when we have our administrative house clean, we can begin to set up procedures for determining salary requests. We may choose a separate administrative schedule or one tied to teacher schedules or one determined by a joint industry-education evaluation, and, with our house in order, we may achieve concrete results.

Summary of the presentation made by EDMOND R. SLAGLE

REFERENCE to the State Minimum Foundation Program. There are many rural-type small schools.

THE MIDLAND PROGRAM

Originally based on a ratio formula with some recognition for good operational procedure. Considerably controlled from central staff authority.

During the past few years, through a process of involved changes as indicated:

Edmond R. Slagle is Principal of the Midland High School, Midland, Texas.

Principals placed on individual contracts within a range of stated minimum and maximum.

Changes in duties and responsibilities from operation head of school to actual educational leader of school.

Extension of contracts, both in months and terms. All secondary-school principals on twelve months, two year contracts.

Increased salaries used as one means of recognition of outstanding leadership.

Addition of some specialists to assist principal in improvement of instructional program.

PRESENT SITUATION

Reorganization of central staff and administrative structure of school system to place principal in closer, more direct relationship to the superintendent.

Central staff composed of a group of specialists whose function is to render service to local schools, and to conduct evaluation programs.

Supervision placed within the local school, with department heads to assist.

Enhancement of the role of the local school principal.

Salaries increased commensurate with this improved status; minimums raised, maximums surpassed and abolished.

Merit recognition involved. Recognition given within the system in promotion as well as salary increase.

The principal has become the real educational leader of his unit. Expectancy and responsibility are high, and salaries are more adequate. The local board of education is making a maximum effort in terms of the tax capacity of the local community.

Summary of the presentation made by C. P. WRIGHT

Read by S. L. Mayes

WE SHARE with the National Education Association its century-old purpose: "To elevate the character and advance the interests of the profession of teaching, and to promote the cause of popular education in the United States." Our interest in improving the compensation of high-school principals extends beyond our immediate interests. The NEA has been studying and actively working for the improvement of teachers' salaries, during the past 40 years. Improving the compensation of principals can be brought about in a similar manner as that of teachers' salaries. The use of definite schedules has become typical practice instead of individual bargaining.

C. P. Wright is Principal of Guthrie High School, Guthrie, Oklahoma.

The use of the preparation, which accords equal recognition to the elementary-school and secondary-school teachers of equivalent preparation, has become almost universal. Active participation by local teachers' association has become accepted in the development of salary schedules in many school districts. The level of salaries paid teachers has risen, but in only a few pioneering communities do the minimum and maximum salaries scheduled for teachers begin to approach professional levels.

The salary goal of the National Education Association is that the salaries reflect the professional skill and training required of teachers and are commensurate with the teacher's importance to American society. This goal is for all who are in the teaching profession.

Salary studies are useful to state education association, local education association, to superintendents and boards of education, and all others who are interested in the improvement of education.

In the National Education Association's *Research Bulletin*, Vol. 35, No. 2, April 1957, is shown the indexes of relationships of median salaries in urban school districts under 30,000 in population, 1930-31, 1940-41, and 1956-57.

Index of relationship, all regular classroom teachers' salary-100.											
Type of Employee	Population										
	10,000 to 29,999			5,000 to 9,999			2,500 to 4,999				
Years Considered	30-31	40-41	56-57	30-31	40-41	56-57	30-31	40-41	56-57		
Principal of H. S.	233	213	158	197	182	147	184	168	140		

One will notice that the high-school principals' and classroom teachers' salaries are much closer together than formerly.

Administrators, however, show a definite progression in relative salaries according to population. The percentage of differential for administrators is highest in the largest districts and lowest in the smallest districts for all three groups of principals and for superintendents.

There is no organized plan for providing adequate salaries for principals in Oklahoma. The Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals have discussed the idea. The Oklahoma Education Association has worked on goals for the educational program for Oklahoma. This includes a minimum and a maximum salary for teachers.

Some of our cities in Oklahoma have minimum and maximum salaries for principals. In Tulsa, the junior high-school principal starts at \$6,450 and receives an increment of \$120 per year for sixteen years and a \$90 increment for the seventeenth and eighteenth years. The senior high-school principal salary is slightly higher, but does not follow a schedule. His is on a negotiation basis. Many of our cities and local education associations have salary committees who are working in this area.

The salaries have been increased on the whole, just as the salaries of other teachers have increased. The principals have received the same salary increase as the teachers. One can see that the principals have lost ground so far as a proportionate increase is concerned. With a definite salary schedule this could be remedied. The schools of Oklahoma that belong to the North Central Association show the average salaries to be as follows: These schools have been separated by enrollment. The schools with an enrollment of less than 250 are not listed.

<i>Enrollment</i>	250-499	500-999	Above 1,000
<i>Average Salary</i>	\$6762	\$7737	\$8736

The above scale does not show the qualifications or experience of the principals. All principals in Oklahoma are required to have a Masters Degree and two years of successful teaching experience.

In states and school districts that have a salary schedule for high-school principals, it is noted that they have been developed in part by some of the following procedures:

1. Through the state education association
2. Through the state secondary-school principals association
3. Through the cooperation of the state education association and the state secondary-school principals association
4. The origin sometimes starts at the local level. Some school districts set up a salary schedule through the recommendations of a salary committee.
5. The salary schedule is helped by the influence of the National Education Association. They have consultants available.
6. The salary schedule is helped by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.
7. Many other organizations have helped in this area, such as: The State and National School Boards Associations, State and National Congress of Parents and Teachers, State and National Superintendents Association.
8. The salary schedule is helped by the state department of education.
9. Through publications of what other school districts and states are doing.

All of the above and other procedures are being used now, or have been used. It is believed that the development of a salary schedule for principals will gradually become a national program. These schedules will vary with the size of the school, qualifications and experience of the principal.

Those who determine salary policies need the right facts. Among other things, they need to know the nature of the work done by principals in providing educational leadership and the economic facts which are pertinent to the problem. In the struggle for high quality people, this problem will become more serious in the years ahead. The following pamphlets have been helpful in improving salaries:

1. The folder put out by the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, *What Salary for You*. This folder gives recommended salary policies,

including suggested ratios of principals' to teachers' salaries in schools of small, medium, and large size.

2. *Survey of Salary Schedules for Secondary-School Principals in 40 Cities, 1957*. This survey summarizes factors to be taken into account in determining salaries and reports on trends in salary schedules.

3. *How To Determine a Principals' Salary*. This is a folder prepared by the New York State Secondary-School Principals Association giving a recommended formula for computing a principals' minimum salary and brief justification for this.

4. *Salaries of Certificated Employees in California Public Schools, 1956-57*. This gives the distribution of the salaries of teachers and administrators.

5. The New Jersey Education Association has a good salary schedule plan for principals.

HOW CAN A SCHOOL GET STARTED ON A STAFF UTILIZATION IMPROVEMENT PROJECT?

CHAIRMAN: *Herman A. Gruhn*, Principal, Sierra Junior High School, Riverside, California

DISCUSSANT: *Clifford J. Skinner*, Principal, Washington High School, Portland, Oregon

Summary of the presentation made by HAROLD HOWE, II

I

A SCHOOL which would improve learning and teaching by using its staff in other than traditional ways must have three essential ingredients before its new educational cake can be placed in the oven with reasonable hopes for successful baking. These three ingredients are a clear and definite idea of what is wanted and why; a person or persons on the staff capable of and dedicated to implementing the idea; and a faculty and community which are willing, at least, to accept change, even though not necessarily enthusiastic about it. In short, to comply with our cooking analogy, a school must have a recipe, a chef, and an oven somewhere near the right temperature.

Fortunately, each of these essentials, if they are not presently available to a school, can be created by effective educational leadership. A principal, acting with the support of his superintendent, can stimulate the thinking of his staff, procure or identify staff members capable of new and improved approaches to education, and influence the acceptance of these approaches in the school and in the community. In fact, this is the

Harold Howe, II is Principal of Newton High School, Newtonville, Massachusetts.

type of activity which should command a major proportion of a principal's energies. He should guard against becoming too involved in the day-to-day aspects of administration; he must find opportunity to speculate on what his school might be like ten years from now, to plan, and to execute the first steps in moving it toward that likeness. Then the principal with real perspectives will be able to convince even firm traditionalists in the school and in the community that they are more than likely to survive the introduction of innovations into secondary education and probably to benefit from such changes.

II

A project in staff utilization will be most effective if it springs from a critical examination of the procedures in an individual school, rather than from efforts to copy the activities of others. Regrettably, this latter approach to educational innovation is a besetting sin of our public schools. Too often we do things, not because they are attacks on present problems or immediate issues in our own schools, but rather because—for prestige reasons—we feel that we must be “doing something.” Consequently we observe the activities of the vanguard in education, select those with which we hope we can live, and then adopt them, with the comfortable feeling that we will not get into too much trouble because someone already has done these things. This form of cautious approach to educational frontiers allows the school to accept credit when the battle is won, yet has the advantage of keeping the school off the firing line.

How much better it is to start from specific problems which can be identified in one's own school! If these problems appear to coincide with those being dealt with elsewhere, then that experience can be used insofar as it is applicable to the local situation. Certainly there is no secondary school in the land which cannot benefit by asking itself, “Are we making the best possible use of the time, energies, and skills of our professional staff? In turn, this question will lead to numerous, more specific, ones: “Are there kinds of staffing we ought to have, but do not have at present?” “Can we relieve teachers of some non-teaching duties and, if so, which ones?” “Can teachers work together in certain combinations, or ‘teams,’ to produce for pupils better opportunities for learning and do so with more efficiency?” “Do we have sufficient teacher energy to revise and update curriculum; if we don't, how can we—with this end in view—rearrange organization and responsibility in our school?”

Honest answers to questions like these will provide any school with a profusion of new projects. Then the problem becomes one of priorities. What shall be done first, and why? The reply to this query should flow from an honest appraisal of personnel available to do the particular job. A good rule is to start in a small way with interested and able people. It will be a rare school which can completely reorganize all its patterns of staffing and teacher utilization. Instead, a limited project should be

undertaken first, with carefully chosen personnel and adequate material facilities. After early success, the expansion of an innovation is easy.

Once the project has been determined upon, the next consideration is the choice of the personnel to be engaged in this utilization plan. It is impossible to overemphasize the point that such staff members must be both capable and dedicated. Where new and untried efforts are being attempted, the necessity for specially able people is obvious; the qualification that should have more emphasis is this matter of dedication. In a new project the people involved are going to be visible. Their small mistakes, of which they will make many, will be used to discourage their activities by that inevitable percentage of people in every school who are (and sometimes for compelling reasons) opposed to change. Pressures of this kind demand that would-be innovators believe firmly in what they are attempting.

The creation of the third essential—a climate of willingness to accept change—is, more than anything else, the result of the effectiveness of the leadership in a school. Confidence in a school's administration grows only from successful experience which the staff and the community have had with that administration over a period of time. Although this is not the place for an essay on the elements of good administration, perhaps one observation is particularly pertinent to the present subject; namely, to have an interchange of ideas for improvement and criticisms of present activities between the administration and the staff is extremely important. Unless the channels of communication are open both ways, there is little likelihood that staff members will be able to make the commitments necessary to successful change. The faculty attitude will be this is "his" project rather than "theirs"; therefore, it probably will not work. In a broader sense, the same thing can be said of relationships between the school and the community.

To be successful, new projects intended to improve learning and teaching require the three ingredients thus briefly suggested. The principal must have vision to perceive innovations applicable to his particular school, yet have the wisdom to start with a single limited objective. To implement the change, there must be some staff members alert to develop new teaching techniques and a majority, at least, willing to give a fair trial to any constructive venture. Most of all, new projects need the mutual trust developed only by a background of close association on all aspects of the educational program.

Summary of the presentation made by J. G. UMSTATT

GIVEN the desire to make more effective use of its staff and the willingness to work on new ideas, a school will encounter little difficulty in doing so beyond that involved in careful study of practices of proved value and intelligent planning for their application. This is true of at least four procedures that have been tested in one or more of one hundred schools in cooperation with the Commission on Staff Utilization of NASSP.

The school should be careful, however, not to try out more than one or two of the ideas at the outset. Nor should it proceed to additional ideas more rapidly than it and the community can adjust to the changes already under way.

Careful planning in advance should include participation of influential laymen who are interested in the school program, at least to the extent of keeping them abreast of developments and of winning their confidence and cooperation. Also, all members of the staff should be sufficiently involved in the planning to guarantee their good will and active assistance in making a success of the undertaking. Staff members immediately involved should gain through reading and discussion a thorough understanding of the project as they plan for its application. If at all possible, a summer workshop should precede the application to give ample opportunity to prepare the necessary materials, to make detailed plans, and to adjust the participants' mental habits and attitudes to the innovation. (Full accounts of how the staff utilization practices have been developed are carried in the *THE BULLETIN* of NASSP for January 1958, 1959, and 1960). In short, perhaps the most important stage of getting started is to devote ample time to public relations, to staff orientation, and to meticulous planning. The following discussion assumes that the staff has read *THE BULLETIN* issues that carry descriptions of the four practices selected for this treatment, and that the steps listed above have been taken or are under way. Incidentally, the four practices have been selected from the nine or ten being tested for two reasons: (1) they have been established as highly effective, and (2) they are the least difficult to get started in a school.

Team Teaching

For two or more teachers (up to five) to pool their personal and professional abilities in a team effort has emerged as one of the most valuable ways to improve staff utilization. In order to facilitate a team's work, the principal might proceed as follows:

1. Encourage teachers to form teams, taking care to "team up" only those who are likely to succeed in a co-operative effort.

J. G. Umstatt is Professor of Secondary Education, School of Education, The University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

2. Schedule one or two of the team members' classes to meet the same hour, thereby making it possible, on occasion, for one to teach all sections together and, on other occasions, for members to trade classes.

3. Schedule the free periods for team members at the same hour to give opportunity for them to plan together.

4. Provide materials as needed, even when budgets have to be increased to do so.

Non-Certificated Teaching Aides

It has been found that about one fourth of the teacher's time is spent on activities that could be done as well by a clerk-stenographer or other kind of aide. The professional talent equal to one full-time teacher could be saved by providing an aide to four teachers, one-fourth time to each. The principal's tasks in making this transition would involve these steps:

1. Acquaint the superintendent and board of education with the idea.

2. Get board approval of the item for aides' salary, either without increase of class size or with an increase of several pupils per class to offset the expense.

3. Leave the acceptance of an aide optional with the teacher.

4. Hold in-service meetings to enable teachers to learn how to use the aides effectively.

5. Select the aides carefully to provide efficient workers who are also persons of tact and discretion.

Mechanical and Electronic Aids

The following steps have brought success in extending the use of such aids as the tape recorder, the overhead projector, and closed-circuit television in schools large enough to justify TV:

1. Acquaint the staff with the values of the instruments through demonstrations, visits for observation, and discussion.

2. Provide specialized training for teachers interested in using the machine through local summer workshops, summer school attendance, or in-service training during the school year.

3. Provide time and instruction for preparing the essential materials.

4. Provide ample planning time, particularly for teachers in charge of large sections, by having them meet fewer classes each week.

5. Purchase additional machines as their value is demonstrated and as additional teachers become qualified to use them.

Independent Study

The rapid increase in the number of high schools enrolled in the Advanced Placement Program of the College Entrance Examination Board (425 West 117 Street, New York 27, N.Y.) and the current emphasis on other extended opportunities for abler youth are evidences of the growth of independent study in high schools. While all schools use the practice to some degree, few if any are using it to fullest possible advantage. Increased use will follow steps similar to the following under the leadership of the principal:

1. Write to the College Entrance Examination Board for free materials on the Advanced Placement Program. [Also see the December 1958 issue of THE BULLETIN on "Advanced Placement Programs in Secondary Schools."]

2. Pursue in-service study of other plans for stimulating abler students (and others) to work independently.

3. Provide the flexibility in classroom procedures and in scheduling classes essential to successful pursuit of independent study.

4. Provide suitable project centers and smaller spaces for independent study. (See "Space for Individual Learning," *The School Executive*, February 1959.)

5. Popularize the idea through suitable recognition at school and in the local press.

The steps suggested above should prove the statement made at the outset: Any school that has the desire to get greater returns from its efforts and is willing to try out a few emerging practices will find little difficulty in getting started.

HOW MUCH AND WHAT KIND OF TESTING PROGRAM FOR TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: S. P. Hyder, Principal, High School, Elizabethton, Tennessee

DISCUSSANT:

Guy Salyer, Professor of Education and Psychology, Stout State College,
Menomonie, Wisconsin

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT L. FOOSE

"MISS Derby, please make a note for today's bulletin to students: 'Results of the PSAT have arrived and may be reviewed in the guidance office.' Be sure, too, to include a reminder that last month's College Board test scores have come and are now available. The deadline for next month's College Board applications will be the first of next week, so they will need to be reminded again to pick up the forms, and, I almost forgot, we have been asked to notify students that Secondary-School Admissions Tests also will be given here. Incidentally, are we distributing our mid-year examination schedule today?"

Robert L. Foose is Principal of Westfield Senior High School, Westfield, New Jersey.

A fictional picture? Not at all! The calendar of thousands of secondary schools at mid-point in the school year would match it. In actual fact, the same week, in the same school saw plans being made for special National Honor Society scholarship tests, preliminary announcements of registration for National Merit Tests, administration of batteries of aptitude tests in the school by the testing bureau of an engineering college and the U.S. Employment Service, and meetings of the testing committee to consider which tests to consider under the National Defense Education Act. All the while, guidance counselors and the school psychologists were continuing individual testing of students referred to them, the mails continued to carry notices of new tests and testing programs from old and new agencies, and the teachers in the classroom were continuing their daily quizzes, unit tests, and final examinations.

If the picture were to be completed, it would be necessary to paint in such details as long negotiations with the board of education to provide more clerical help to record the mountainous backlog of test scores on permanent records, the efforts of supervisors to help teachers overcome their lethargy toward the interpretation and use of the results of tests with which they have not been directly involved, and the countless questions directed towards the school by parents and students about tests they read about in last Sunday's paper.

There can be no doubt about the growing interest and concern on the part of the public and the schools as to the extent and purpose of testing today and of the regional and national testing programs entering the picture in ever greater numbers. How they are affecting the programs of individual schools is a subject which is generating a great deal of heat and hopefully some light.

In considering the question "How much and what kind of testing programs for today's secondary school," it is easy to lose sight of two basic facts. The first is that public education in America is committed to a bold dream unknown before in human history—to provide educational opportunities for all the children of all the people. Based on the conviction that each individual possesses human worth and dignity and must have the opportunity to develop his greatest potential, a free people has undertaken to educate the masses as the only hope for the betterment of mankind. If our rapidly expanding testing programs can help the schools to achieve that goal, they are eminently worth while. If they result in the elimination or rejection of all but the academically able, they can dangerously affect the realization of this dream.

The second is that a testing program is built into every secondary-school program with its constant pupil evaluation by teacher-made tests. One of the prime concerns of educators today is how to help teachers construct and use their own tests more effectively. Scientific studies of learning have long since shown that tests are one method a teacher may employ to assess status and need, but can wreak devastating effects upon children

when they are used to judge them rather than to help them learn. One of the real challenges to secondary education is the development of an evaluation program which encourages independent thinking rather than rote memorization, and that regards evaluation as an aid to learning rather than a block or barrier to further progress in an educational pattern which we say is designed to serve all American youth.

Fortunately there are many indications that the schools of this country are committed to developing programs that will meet the needs of all secondary-school-age youth. The growing numbers and the rising proportion of this age group in secondary schools means that the schools are attempting to cope with the problems of mass education, with the proper offerings for the brightest and the least academically able pupils. The work that is being done at all levels, from the local to our national associations, reveals the concern being felt about the use and misuse of testing. More materials are being provided in a swelling stream to help teachers develop in-service training on the effective use of evaluative measures they can develop to assist them in the educative process.

At this point the multiplicity of commercial objective tests and large scale programs can provide real help to the schools, but also can become a real danger to our American system of education. With the benefit of national promotion, many tests can successfully confuse the public which supports the educational system and even the teachers in our schools as to what they can do. If they are used to provide premature and inflexible labels on students, to provide a basis for comparing the quality of the programs of individual schools, to produce a standard curriculum in all the schools of the country, even to provide an evaluative measure which will separate those who should be educated from those who are to be rejected, or to interfere with the ordered pattern of education in the schools, they can be a serious threat to the American secondary school. There is evidence that all of these results have occurred to some degree.

Testing for testing's sake is worthless. Testing for learning's sake is extremely valuable. Herein lies the answer to the question, "How much and what kind?"

School systems which attack the problem realistically have recognized that certain criteria must be applied: What desirable and meaningful information about students can be supplied by tests? What tests are readily available? Are scores readily understood and meaningful in working with students? Are tests valid and acceptable to the teachers using them? Can they be administered fairly, economically, and efficiently? Most importantly, will they be used?

In this test-conscious decade, secondary schools face the challenge of devoting considerable study to their testing programs. A cooperative project with administrators, teachers, and consultants working together should provide the answers to the best kind of in-service training which will be helpful to teachers in improving their own evaluative procedures

and the selection of standard tests to be administered. Such local testing committees should be prepared to help teachers understand the value of test scores and to interpret them in relation to their teaching. It should point up the value of many of the tests which both secondary teachers and college admissions officers expect to have—a series of intelligence, reading comprehension, academic achievement, and college aptitude tests,—to name a few.

As to the tests imposed, and that word is used advisedly, by outside agencies, schools are rapidly being forced to certain decisions. To avoid interference with the school program, many are now being offered on days not on the school calendar. Schools are learning from experience, which are desirable or necessary for specific purposes; *i.e.*, college admissions, scholarships, *etc.*, and which they can reasonably accept or reject. In the meantime some constructive suggestions are being considered by agencies which are involved with the growing number of widely used examinations. Frank Bowles' proposal that one or two days each term be set aside for administering the host of scholarship and college admission tests now being offered is a suggestion that merits real study.

Fortunately schools in this country still retain their freedom to decide how much and what kind of testing programs to have in their own schools to meet the needs of their pupils. It is a freedom to be cherished at all costs if our dream of universal education is to be achieved.

Summary of the presentation made by CLYDE VROMAN

BECAUSE this topic also is discussed by a high-school principal, I am limiting my remarks to the points of view of the colleges. In higher education, we are observing with much interest, and considerable sympathy and concern, the increasing problems and responsibilities of the secondary schools under the impact of current pressures of large-scale testing programs at the state and national level. Most of these test programs are directly connected with the college-level programs of scholarships, admission, pre-enrollment counseling, and placement in college courses. No small portion of the trends is due to our national concern that we find and educate all our talented young people. I will state briefly what the colleges would like to see included in school testing programs. I also will make some suggestions on the broad structure of such programs and the leadership which secondary schools should take as soon as possible.

Colleges hope that each school system will have a comprehensive testing program covering all twelve grades for the supplementary guidance and

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evaluation of pupil growth and for use in the study of the curriculum. By the time a pupil completes his elementary education, the school should have a good understanding of his intelligence, reading level, subject achievements, special abilities, and interests. By the end of the tenth grade, the high school should have similar but up-to-date information on the pupil, plus an understanding of his current interests, potential for post-high-school education, and possible vocational alternatives.

The eleventh grade is the ideal year to collect and coordinate the test data that is useful in helping the student decide whether he should go to college, the programs he may wish in college, and the types of colleges most appropriate for him. Participation in one or more of the current national programs is a constructive and worth-while way for a student to procure helpful test data during his eleventh grade.

During the twelfth grade, the school should gather achievement test data on each senior. Also during this year, the student interested in entering a college, and possibly requesting financial aid, should participate in one or more of the national testing programs. Meanwhile, the school and the college, cooperatively, should be using the available test data on the student to supplement and interpret his school record in counseling him about his plans for a college education.

All this implies that the school will participate in at least some of the current testing programs offered by external agencies. There is criticism that the school does not want and should not participate in any testing program designed for a specialized group such as the college-bound students. And yet many high schools administer the *General Aptitude Test Battery* of the U. S. Employment Service in order to help a special group—those students interested in entering a vocation immediately following graduation.

From such needs, practices, and trends as given above, it is clear that for some time there will be not only as many but probably more testing programs organized and conducted by groups outside the individual school systems. Each secondary school now can readily procure professional assistance in developing its own program of testing. The crucial need is to develop points of view and programs by which secondary schools individually, and collectively through their state and national associations, can make best use of the external testing programs.

Looking from the eyes and experiences of a college admissions officer, I make the following suggestions to the secondary schools as a basis for organizing a constructive approach to deal with the present dilemma posed by multiple testing programs:

First, each secondary school must have an adequate guidance and counseling program and staff, including the specialized services needed by students with ability to profit from a college education.

Second, the school should organize to participate effectively in state and national testing programs insofar as such programs are useful or desired by students.

Third, the school should integrate the data from the external testing programs with its own testing programs and interpret the findings for students, parents, and teachers.

Fourth, the school should make cooperative follow-up studies of its students to learn the relationships of test data to subsequent student experiences. This is particularly urgent and possible between the school and one or more colleges in which a substantial number of the school's graduates regularly enroll.

Fifth, the school should prepare summaries of the test data to submit to the colleges as a part of the "school characteristic" statement which should accompany each student's application for admission. In addition, the school should interpret the individual student's test scores in terms of school and national norms.

Sixth, I urge that the secondary schools individually, and collectively under the leadership of the NASSP, formulate a statement or code of recommended points of view, policies, and practices aimed directly at (1) eliminating the undesirable and negative attitudes and practices relating to external testing programs, and (2) developing desirable attitudes, policies, and practices in all matters pertaining to such testing programs.

We frequently hear criticisms of large-scale testing programs—"They will all lead to Federally controlled examinations; teachers will teach for the tests; private coaching schools will flourish; tests will control the curriculum and teaching methods; college admissions will depend on minimum test scores; schools will be rated by the public; pupils will be classified and channeled too early; tests do not measure everything; test administration interferes with teaching and classroom experiences," etc. Such criticisms may have been valid a few decades ago in the conditions which existed at that time. However, conditions have changed greatly and such weaknesses will exist now only if we permit them by our failure to take positive and constructive action.

It is most urgent that we initiate a program (1) to forestall the possible evils that might accompany participation in large-scale testing programs, and (2) to implement the desirable outcomes and values of those programs. I am confident that principals and their schools can reduce greatly the negative effects of external testing programs and can initiate practices which will make the positive values far outweigh their negative potentials. State and national testing programs then will make their proper contribution to testing programs for today's secondary schools.

WHAT ROLE FOR THE PRINCIPAL IN IMPROVING THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Armond T. Larson*, Principal, Benjamin Franklin Junior High School, Fargo, North Dakota

DISCUSSANT:

Bob Rothschild, Director of Secondary Education, Tulare County Schools, Visalia, California

Summary of the presentation made by DEAN C. CHRISTENSEN

TRADITIONALLY speaking, when improvement of instruction is being discussed, one immediately thinks of an individual principal or supervisor visiting the classroom of the teacher. This visit might be followed by a conference with the teacher quite imposed and authoritarian in nature. However, the principal's role as an instructional leader in today's school must assume numerous other connotations, such as improving instruction by establishing meaningful objectives, improving instructional methods, bettering understanding of the teacher and his environment, improving the use of instructional materials, obtaining more knowledge of the psychological implications of how learning takes place, and, providing the kinds of learning experiences for the students—within and out of the classroom—that will make living *satisfying* and *productive*. From this basis, then, let's discuss the role of the junior high-school principal in improving the instructional program.

Immediately, a principal rises to his own defense by saying, What more can one person do? Orientation of new teachers; class schedules; attendance problems; school activities, such as lyceums, dances, assemblies, athletic events, PTA; substitute teachers; school bus problems; school lunch; custodial responsibilities; budget—on and on the list might go. Although all of these duties are very important, any operational activity deterring the instructional program indicates that the real basic reason for existence of the school itself—a sound instructional program—is being forgotten. Obviously, a principal must always regard the instructional program as the number one reason for his position. The principal should democratically organize his school staff—administratively, faculty and clerical—to free himself from many of the mechanical responsibilities presently robbing him of precious time so necessary in planning for instructional improvement.

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The principal describes to his staff his views about what he believes the school should do for the students. In so doing, he has definite, well-planned objectives formulated for presentation. In conjunction with his resourceful staff, the principal very carefully and confidently considers and integrates staff thinking in formulating final objectives. Definiteness and specificity are musts in administration both in selection of objectives and in providing the required, related learning experiences for reaching these objectives. Observation indicates that the gap between the desired objectives and the specific programs in most schools is extremely wide. Effort need be exerted continually to narrow this gap if classroom instruction is to improve.

The principal must always know what is happening to the instructional program, through committee and large-group consultation, exploration, pupil achievement records and through continuous evaluation techniques in order to achieve the best results. Too often, a principal will procrastinate by saying that he is too busy with the mechanical details of running his school actually to tackle the improvement of instruction problem. Teachers and administrators must realize that there must be team approach and responsibility of concerted action for improving the instructional program if it is to become a reality. Conscientious effort should be exerted to lift fictitious barriers of fear and insecurity from staff members' thinking.

Naturally, the principal must plant instructional improvement seeds; must continually cultivate the enthusiasm, organization, time, materials; and must lead in the identification of the concepts people must have if they are to behave according to the major aims of his junior high school.

Summary of the presentation made by STERLING C. GOPLERUD

ENTHUSIASM and hard work—plant a lot of seed, fertilize, and cultivate—could very well be the key to any success the principal may have in curriculum improvement. Display the attitude that we (your school) have something great, but in order to keep it great—out ahead—there is work to be done. Be an “idea man”—make suggestions; prepare some possibilities; encourage teacher participation in discussion of change or modification; devise methods of calling attention to areas of weakness; follow through in all projects that germinate by providing assistance, time, and materials; bring to the attention of the entire staff those developments that make a contribution to improvement. In all cases, predetermine if the students might be the losers; if not, the least that can come of the effort is maintaining the *status quo* and possibly there will be improvement in what is being done.

Sterling C. Goplerud is Principal of Central Junior High School, Iowa City, Iowa.

The junior high-school teacher is a double expert—an expert teacher of youngsters and an expert in a subject area. The teacher's first duty is within the classroom; therefore, two things must be kept in mind. First, the teacher must be involved in the curriculum planning, but not at the expense of the class. And second, the teacher should be led to feel that his suggestions are of considerable value. This presupposes that the principal knows his staff and the staff knows him. Time must be spent to bring about a feeling of mutual trust and respect. Among many devices, asking individual teachers for their opinions, suggestions, and help and then following through, can build a good relationship as well as improve curriculum. When this point is reached, some of the following approaches may be used singly or in combination with individuals and with the staff as a whole.

Remove some of the obstacles to teacher participation in curriculum improvement. Have an open-door policy. Any time a teacher wants to see you, be available and provide the assistance needed. Treat each problem with genuine concern and patience and act promptly. Provide clerical assistance. Work on eliminating clerical duties performed by the teachers. Overcome inertia by performing studies and preparing the beginnings of suggested programs. This will give faculty members a basis or point to start at, rather than using valuable time trying to determine just what is wanted or needed.

Provide stimulation for teacher participation in curriculum improvement. If your school has a pre-school workshop, you have the ideal opportunity to set the stage for the year's emphasis. The whole workshop program can be oriented toward a theme for the year ahead, such as the all inclusive, "What are we doing for the able and ambitious?" "What are we doing for the slow and reluctant?" "What are we doing to improve our instruction to the individual?" or "What is our guidance program and what is my place in the program?" Provide an opportunity for the teacher to suggest books for the library by having a building book display and announce that each teacher has the opportunity to select five books for the library. Textbooks should be selected by the teacher in the classroom—provide examination copies when a selection is to be made. Encourage experimentation in the classroom, make specific suggestions to teachers as a result of something you heard or read about. Deviate from "normal" and the deviation may become normal—in other words, "nothing ventured, nothing gained." Discuss scholarship and fellowship opportunities and help teachers to obtain them. Suggest to teachers taking advanced college work that certain course requirements might be met if a thorough study of the local situation were made. If the teacher has some ability to write, assist him in getting some work printed in a professional journal. Be generous with praise. Call attention to the project or article through any means available, but never identify yourself with success. Success belongs

to the staff as a whole or individual teacher, while any set back or lack of progress is completely accepted by the principal alone.

Develop organizational patterns and devices which stimulate activity and contribute to curriculum improvement. The use of lesson plans, formulated a week at a time during the week before use, insures some thinking and planning. A carbon copy left in the office gives the principal an opportunity to follow the development of a unit and make suggestions. An end-of-the-year brief summary of the material covered can be the basis of a curriculum guide book as well as a valuable aid to the teacher who will follow next year. The curriculum guide book, prepared by you from the year end summaries, will not be satisfactory to the teachers but gives them something of their own to work from—be assured that it will be used. Rather than delegate curriculum improvement responsibilities to an individual such as a "director of secondary curriculum," use him to provide information and materials and as a resource person to your staff. Hold regularly scheduled faculty meetings, at least monthly with the first on Monday, second on Tuesday, *etc.* Devote one half of the meeting to a discussion of one of the subject matter areas. Preparation for these discussions can begin through departmental meetings during the workshop with a suggested outline supplied by the principal. We like to elect a department chairman for the year during workshop—with no person serving more than two consecutive years. This device will usually develop leadership qualities and the teachers usually enjoy the responsibility. The main emphasis at staff meetings deals with "What are we doing, what can we do to contribute to your subject, and what can you do to help us." Use an elected committee of teachers to help plan each faculty meeting. Teachers will bring problems to other teachers often before they bring them to you, and often you can get to teachers through members of this agenda committee.

The chief avenue to curriculum improvement is the teacher's approach to the student. If the teacher is thinking and enthusiastically working on individual needs, the curriculum is bound to improve.

Just as in good teaching—the method changes—so does the approach to curriculum improvement change. Do not rely entirely on one system or organization year after year—use a new road to the same destination. Direct and indirect means are effective in accomplishing continuous study and revision to meet the ever changing needs of youth, to utilize the ever improved materials, and to keep the curriculum alive and growing.

HOW CAN ADVANCED PLACEMENT PROGRAMS BENEFIT QUALIFIED STUDENTS? WHAT ARE THE IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL CURRICULUM?

CHAIRMAN: *Sidney A. Seegers*, Principal, Neville High School, Monroe, Louisiana

DISCUSSANTS:

Dale B. Davis, Principal, High School, Carrollton, Texas

C. L. Munden, Assistant Staff Director, Education Division, Office of Armed Forces Information and Education, Department of Defense, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by JERRY J. GERICH

RESEARCH has long shown the need for providing challenging instruction and experiences for those boys and girls in our schools who have great potential for learning. Our sensitivity to the need for more planning for these superior young people has increased in recent years because of international tensions and scientific advances. We now recognize, more than ever, the urgency to educate a greater number of our very able young people for responsible positions in research and leadership. Because of this intense interest, much impetus has been given to planning special programs for the very able students in schools throughout the country.

It is recognized that American schools have the responsibility to provide instructional programs to challenge the intellectual potential of the youth of the nation. Therefore, secondary schools have been formulating policies and initiating programs for their rapid learners. This has involved identifying the superior students and devising programs to meet their needs. Other dimensions of these programs have included grappling with problems in personnel selection, guidance, in-service training, and creating a proper climate in the school and community.

A most promising program for the superior student, which has passed through the experimental stage, is the Advanced Placement Program. It has been accepted as an essential part of the instructional program, particularly in the large comprehensive high school, which sends the majority of its graduates to institutions of higher learning. This program recognizes advanced scholastic achievement in the high school. Advanced placement is determined on the basis of a student's performance on the Advanced Placement tests and the special course pursued in high school. Success in the program permits the student to earn college credit in high school, enroll in advanced courses at college, complete undergraduate re-

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quirements early, enroll in graduate courses, or enrich his college program by adding courses because certain prerequisites were waived.

Advanced Placement programs have affected teaching, course planning, high-school-college communication, and the educational goals of secondary schools and institutions of higher education in the United States. While much progress has been made during the fifties, it appears the sixties should be even more productive. The more effective articulation developing between secondary schools and colleges should make a contribution for the betterment of programs for the very able as well as upgrading the total educational program in American communities. Advanced Placement has stimulated an appraisal of the program of studies at all levels—elementary, secondary, and higher education. This examination and searching of the educational enterprise may well produce durable improvements and a balance of opportunities for all of our young people.

One specific plan has emerged already. Through this plan, we have given our more able students opportunities on the same terms as we have sought to give these to the mentally and physically handicapped and all other minorities in public education. At this time, no one can say how many of the ablest students in our secondary schools will eventually be given the challenge and opportunity to take advanced courses. We do know, however, that secondary-school teachers and administrators are anxious to do more for their very superior students. We shall need additional resources for expediting programs for these students. Previous experience in undertaking programs for the slow learner and physically handicapped taught us that they cost money. Thus special services for the ablest students will also entail additional expenditures. It is logical in a democratic society to provide opportunities for the fullest development of all its youth, commensurate with their potential and aspiration. This is their educational birthright.

As the new cycle of emphasis on the superior student progresses, some caution needs to be exercised. We must work with equal persistence to provide, maintain, and extend a climate and rapport in our communities which will facilitate programs of quality that recognizes many kinds of differences among the student body. We have an obligation also to think of superiority in terms of something more than intellectual ability. No doubt, we are on the threshold of important "break throughs" and advances at every educational level. A real sense of purpose and destiny seems to be emerging. To do justice to the youth of the nation, we must skilfully nurture and guide these school programs in a society which dignifies the individual and has a basic commitment to democratic values.

Summary of the presentation made by KENNETH W. LUND

ADVANCED placement classes have now become an accepted part of the educational scene, with a growth curve in number of schools, courses, and students that astounds those of us who are used to the staid conservatism of American educators. In the brief period since 1954, when the program began with joint conferences between leading Eastern colleges and universities and a group of twelve public and six private high schools, the program has spread throughout the country with a minimum of faltering and confusion. In various states, we now find college groups encouraging high schools to institute programs, and in others we find high schools pressing colleges to be more liberal in accepting the work of graduates of the program at full value. In both situations there is reason to expect progress and continued expansion of the program.

However, an advanced placement program cannot be created by merely a few minor adjustments at the senior level for students. It is not enough to group separately the talented seniors and assign a capable teacher, adopt a college textbook, and label a course as advanced placement English, mathematics, science, or foreign language. On the contrary, an advanced placement class is the last step and a natural one that follows from some decisions that are made and some action taken in the curriculum and instructional programs of the school and affecting the student as he enters high school. These decisions include the following concepts and their implementation:

1. The reality of individual differences
2. The acceptance of ability grouping and the concomitant curricular and instructional adjustments
3. The need for acceleration and its value for certain individual students
4. The establishment of a sound guidance program and a policy of individual planning for each pupil

In short, the entire faculty, student body, and their parents will feel the effects of this program. As local circumstances permit, it will mean ability grouping and differential instruction from the earliest level possible. The opportunity to accept acceleration is given to our students beginning as early as the ninth grade, with tests, course grades, and teacher recommendations serving as the basis for the decision. Approximately ninety per cent of those offered the opportunity in English accept the offer. The student progress in English thereafter has been described as a "throughway" with periodic exits. Students may accept acceleration in one or two fields, commonly, but only in rare instances have they done accelerated work in three or four. Approximately fifteen per cent of our student body

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has taken accelerated work and carried it through to the level of taking the advanced placement examinations in May of their senior year in at least one course.

In meeting the challenge of teaching this group, our staff quickly accepted the needs for different instructional methods and new content. In handling literature in English and foreign language, it was noted that these students were avid readers who could report in depth and react to the story content and its meaning, rather than a mere repetition of the events and experiences recounted by the author. In literature and history courses, they have been encouraged to handle original sources and divergent points of view and to face issues and analyze critically the meanings of the work. In mathematics and science, students are encouraged to derive formulas, to reason rather than to memorize, to explore independently and to read in the history of science and mathematics for a cultural perspective.

The faculty reports that through these experiences they are now more critical of their own methods of handling regular and slower groups, and the discussions within departments of these problems have made all more aware of the need for individually planned teacher-learner relationships.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE CONANT REPORT FOR QUALITY EDUCATION IN THE COMPREHENSIVE SECONDARY SCHOOL

CHAIRMAN: *William T. Bean*, Principal, Lower Merion Senior High School, Ardmore, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

Loren A. Disbrow, Principal, High School, Berkley, Michigan

Neal Duncan, District Superintendent, Public Schools, Chicago, Illinois

PANEL:

Lowell A. Burkett, Assistant Executive Secretary, American Vocational Association, Washington, D. C.

Donald C. Manlove, Associate Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

Bernard S. Miller, Principal, Senior High School, Peekskill, New York

James E. Russell, Secretary, Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, Washington, D. C.

Summary of the presentation made by **LOWELL A. BURKETT**

THE mere fact that in this discussion we are concerned with a comprehensive secondary school implies that we are talking about a secondary school that Dr. Conant says can do three things well; namely, (1) provide a general education for *all* American youth; (2) provide meaningful practical courses to develop a skill immediately marketable on graduation from high school; (3) provide significant courses in mathematics, science, and foreign languages for those who were headed for professional study in a university.

I am convinced that the comprehensive high school, although unique to the United States, has been truly a hope and a dream of some educators of other nations in their search to provide equal educational opportunities, but because of their cultural heritage could not easily be realized. We in America have developed this educational innovation for a democratic society. We must tenaciously cling to this concept and nurture it to full growth and meaning.

Dr. Conant is so imbued with the idea of this type of secondary school program that it seems to radiate from his writing and speaking on the subject. It undoubtedly means to him, as I am sure it does to you and me, that every youth must have an opportunity, through education, to develop his full potential for a full life. The three purposes of the comprehensive high school, as previously stated, are paramount to the youth

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of the secondary-school-age level in preparation for life in a democratic society.

"Quality education" means different things to different people. In fact "education" is a controversial term. I don't think we need to debate these terms if we accept Dr. Conant's purposes of the American comprehensive high school—our prime concern is that these purposes are realized.

I'm sure that, because of my background and training, you expect me to speak on the second stated purpose; namely, provide meaningful practical courses to develop a skill immediately marketable on graduation from high school. Needless to say, we are indeed happy that this purpose for the comprehensive high school was clearly stated and that education and training, which is not synonymous in the minds of some, at least is used in the same frame of reference. Again, I don't have time allotted to debate Admiral Rickover on the deterrent of training to education, but I'm firmly convinced that education involves training as a tool for learning and that, through the use of this tool, we can get education.

We in vocational education have always realized the importance of a general education and, more recently, we have deeper appreciation of the contributions of the sciences and mathematics. Technological developments require the application of the knowledge of these subjects.

Our chief concern over the years has been in the neglect and the misunderstanding of vocational education. We have tried desperately to keep the training for marketable skills, the acquiring of technical knowledge and the development of proper work habits and attitudes, under the administration and supervision of professional educators. We think it belongs there and God forbid that American education ever reject it. In this advanced society in which we live, it isn't a question of whether we do or whether we don't have vocational education. It is currently a question of who is going to do it.

Do you feel that a democratic society can afford a training program so narrowly conceived that it fits everyone into narrow occupational slots? Certainly that is all we can expect an industry to do if it assumes full responsibility for training without the cooperation of education and all the other institutions of our society. To give full responsibility for vocational education to employee and employer groups and to agencies of government outside of education would endanger our democratic way of life.

You have undoubtedly talked with the vice president or the personnel director of a company, as I have done, and heard him say "Give me a young person with a good general education, with good work habits, and with the right attitude toward work and I'll train him for the job." Certainly he is calling for youth who has had good vocational education in our comprehensive high school, who has a good general education, who has developed good work habits in vocational courses, and who has acquired the right attitudes toward work in these experiences. I'm wondering if you have ever gone a little further with your inquiry after talking

with the vice president or personnel manager. Have you ever talked with the foreman or supervisor who is responsible for the supervision of the individual from your school? He is quick to tell you that marketable skills and technical knowledge are essential. Yes, we in education are *beginning* to work with those who use the products of our schools, but I regret that we don't always get to the persons who supervise and direct the worker.

I was happy that Dr. Conant was able to differentiate clearly between vocational education and other practical arts education such as industrial arts. The failure to do this is perhaps the most inexcusable of all errors made by school administration in building a comprehensive school program. Vocational education programs and industrial arts programs each have separate objectives. I often find that many school administrators think that a course is taught with a vocational objective just because it is conducted in a shop or laboratory. Nothing could be more erroneous. It behooves our schools of education to help our administrators get a keener understanding of the programs of vocational and practical arts education.

Industrial arts and all general education practical arts courses have a place in our schools in helping youth get a better understanding of the economy and the work world in which they will live—just as history helps them understand their heritage.

It is quality education for all American youth for which we are striving; it isn't just quality education for those who go on to advance study. The Conant study and report undoubtedly will give a greater balance to our secondary-school program. The impact of the report will not be felt immediately because school programs don't change on short notice due to fiscal considerations and philosophical beliefs of those who direct rather than lead the educational program of our secondary schools. Certainly, Dr. Conant's report implies that we can have quality education in our comprehensive high school. He sets forth the challenge. He has explicitly given some guidelines for a good secondary-school program. I'm firmly convinced that American education and citizenry will respond.

Summary of the presentation made by DONALD C. MANLOVE

THAT Dr. James Bryant Conant, distinguished scientist, educator, and statesman, has rendered secondary education an almost invaluable service can scarcely be denied. Already a highly respected and trusted friend of education, Dr. Conant further endeared himself to school people by the calm and sane consideration of some of the critical problems of secondary

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education. His endorsement of the comprehensive high school as the type of institution best suited to this country has received wide acclaim from those most closely connected with the schools.

The impact of the Conant Report upon those most closely connected with the management of the schools can be illustrated by a study being done by Paul Schilling, assistant principal at the Indiana University laboratory school. This study was designed to determine the extent to which people most closely connected with schools in Indiana agree or disagree with the 21 recommendations of Dr. Conant. Mr. Schilling sampled the opinions of principals, superintendents, and school board presidents connected with high schools with over 500 pupils who were members of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. On the basis of the replies received, an "index of favorableness" was derived. This index refers to the average amount of agreement among school officials concerning a specific item. An index above 50 shows agreement, while one below 50 shows disagreement.

<i>Dr. Conant's Recommendation</i>	<i>Index of Agreement</i>			
	<i>Supt.</i>	<i>Prin.</i>	<i>Board Composite Pres.</i>	<i>Index</i>
Twelfth-grade social studies	94	95	93	94
Counseling system	86	90	90	88
Programs of the academically talented	83	87	90	86
Home rooms	78	84	77	81
Ability grouping	75	82	83	80
Organization of the school day	73	77	86	78
Individualized programs	71	67	73	69

Although there is space here to report the extent of agreement with only seven of the recommendations, all recommendations had a composite index of favorableness above 69. If it can be assumed that the school officials across the nation hold views similar to those held by their counterparts in Indiana, what then, are the implications of the Conant Report for secondary-school administration?

Top priority is given in the Report to the elimination of the small high school. Dr. Conant concludes that only high schools with enrollments of 500 and graduating classes of 100 can economically provide the type of education that is needed and desired. At present, more than half of our 23,000 high schools attended by 30 per cent of our high-school pupils do not meet the standard of a graduating class of 100. As many of these small high schools disappear, and disappear they will, the number of principalships will be drastically reduced. Competition for the positions which remain will be sharper and will demand well qualified principals.

Dr. Conant's endorsement of the comprehensive high school as the institution that can meet the educational needs of the academically talented as well as the special needs of all other pupils is significant. The implication is that it is unnecessary to spend money to construct and staff special schools such as vocational or academic high schools. Secondary-school administrators are responsible, then, for an adequate program of education for all pupils with various talents and interests.

Adequate counseling help at the rate of one full-time counselor to each 250 to 300 pupils is another recommendation. A small percentage of the nation's high schools can boast a counseling staff that would meet this ratio. It is interesting to note that the North Central Association in its new *Policies and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools* recommends a ratio of students to qualified guidance personnel of approximately 300 to 1. The need for trained personnel is becoming more pressing. Some qualified counselors may be secured from among principals of small schools which cease to exist as a result of consolidation; the majority however, will have to come from well-qualified teachers who have had professional training for counseling.

Dr. Conant's proposal for a 7- or 8-period day has met with less acceptance by administrators than most other recommendations. This proposal seems to be predicated on the assumption that the larger number of periods make the scheduling of the academically talented easier. Regardless whether the shorter period (45 minutes) is used, there seems to be a movement toward lengthening the school day. The North Central Association has a new criterion for member schools which says the length of the school day for students shall be at least six clock hours exclusive of lunch time. The implication here is that secondary-school administrators must be prepared to construct a flexible schedule for all youths who will be under the supervision of the school for 7 to 7½ hours per day.

The Conant Report points up the importance and desirability of the principal's involving the teaching staff in planning. If many of Dr. Conant's recommendations are to be implemented, they can be implemented only if the teachers are sympathetic and in agreement with the recommendation. This is especially true in regards to controversial subjects such as ability grouping, marking, advanced programs, and home rooms. The principal must not only utilize fully his staff in planning, he must also assume greater responsibility in the selection of teachers.

In the space allotted, it is impossible to discuss adequately all the implications of the Conant Report for secondary administration. This much can be said. The high-school principalship which is the oldest administrative position in American education is becoming an increasingly complicated position. The end is not yet in sight. The Conant Report "points up" the importance of the principal as a professional leader.

Summary of the presentation made by BERNARD S. MILLER

ONE of the great accomplishments in Dr. Conant's first report on the American high school is the suggestion that for those students who can readily be identified as academically talented, there is a logical priority ranking when the choice is made among elective subjects. All subject disciplines on the secondary-school level are not considered inherently equal in value for all students.

Dr. Conant recommends that boys and girls who, on a national average, constitute the upper 15 per cent of a total grade enrollment should be persuaded to take the following basic program of studies in grades 9-12: four years of English, at least three years of social studies, three years of science, and four years of a foreign language. In addition, many of these students could elect a second foreign language sequence or a concentration in advanced art, music, or other appropriate elective areas.

This recommendation does *not* mean we are committed to the exclusive education of a segregated elite; it does *not* mean that so-called average ability students who may be talented in a specific subject are relegated to classes of inferior status; it does *not* mean that we must abandon our democratic faith and principles. Quite the contrary. Dr. Conant has emphasized over and over again that our public schools are organized to preserve our way of life and that a democratic society can flourish only when individual rights and responsibilities are respected and cherished.

The extraordinary talents inherent in ordinary people can be challenged and channeled, Dr. Conant maintains, when students are grouped on the basis of their ability subject by subject. It is admittedly no simple task to correlate each student's test results, teacher recommendations, anecdotal records, report-card grades, and other information in order to make certain that students, teachers, and courses of study are appropriately matched. But one has only to ask teachers and students who have had the opportunity to follow this flexible programming to learn that the effort produces results and real learning does take place. This flexible grouping, as proposed by Dr. Conant, is based on the assumption that each school will have a good guidance system and that suitable courses of study will be provided to encompass the whole range of educational needs. The vocationally oriented pupil as well as the one who plans to attend a two or four year post-high-school institution should be given the opportunity to enroll in proper sequential courses of study. In schools with a graduating class of less than 100 students such a program is generally prohibitively expensive. Administrators who wish to have their faculty stimulate students with new ideas will find that Dr. Conant's recommendations on ability grouping can serve as the chlorophyll in an educational photosynthesis.

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And for busy administrators, as well as for board of education members who are more concerned with facts than with nostrums, Dr. Conant has provided us with an almost ridiculously simple and effective "do-it-yourself" kit—the academic inventory. As you know, the academic inventory reveals meaningful statistics about the education of the academically talented senior students by summarizing their academic course of studies. With this inventory, there is less danger to mistake the appearance for the reality, to equate superficial change with fundamental revisions.

Until recently, it has been an unquestioned axiom in our nation that the public schools should provide each pupil, regardless of background, an opportunity to advance as rapidly as he can or as slowly as he must. One of the reasons why Dr. Conant has concentrated on a study of our comprehensive high school is that this type of school organization is uniquely designed to provide the social cohesion which is so integral a part of our society. What opportunities would there be in our communities for the son of the laborer and the son of the banker to work together, to trade viewpoints on contemporary problems if they did not study together under the same school roof, and share problems and joys as club members, varsity team players, and cooperative participants in the student council?

But Dr. Conant reports, and as educators we know only too well, that a democratic atmosphere is not automatically guaranteed by creating a comprehensive high school. High-school principals must exert dynamic leadership to make certain both faculty and students are acutely conscious of the need to practice as well as theorize about democratic procedures and traditions. It rests with us to make our schools the shrine and sanctuary in which democracy prepares its victories for the future.

Dr. Conant has brought a sense of reality to the American educational program. He has expressed an unbridled faith in the ability of public school educators to be compassionate as well as competent. Above all, he has given us a guide and a sense of direction. To quarrel with the basic tenets of his report is to miss the forest for the trees.

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES E. RUSSELL

IN DISCUSSING the implications of the Conant report, I would like to focus attention on two principal aspects: first, *why* Dr. Conant has impact. Or, to say it differently, why the implications of his reports are important for secondary education; and *second*, what are some of his specific contributions to the essential ingredients of quality in a secondary school?

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WHY DR. CONANT HAS IMPACT

The first and most obvious reason, of course, is his towering prestige. A man who has served for two decades as President of Harvard University, who has served his country as an ambassador, who has been an intimate of Presidents and captains of industry, and who has simultaneously informed himself in detail about American education, can hardly fail to command the respect of every American.

Prestige alone, however, does not account for the great weight of Dr. Conant's opinions. Also involved is the fact that he has been at great pains to inform himself of what happens in some good American secondary schools. This effort surely makes him nearly unique among those citizens who have chosen to speak out on the schools. Dr. Conant makes a pleasant contrast with some of those school critics who are prepared to shoot off their mouths with a lot of half-baked nonsense on matters of which they are ill-informed. Through the experience of visiting a large number of schools and personally taking the time to inquire as to their performance, their standards, and their expectations, he has acquired an authority as a spokesman for his own point of view.

This does not mean that he believes that his own views are inevitably or necessarily correct. I have not heard him claim that the things he saw were typical. But a schoolman is hard put to argue with a friendly critic who bases all his statements on what he saw with his own eyes.

In this connection I had an interesting experience with Dr. Conant about a year ago. Because it involved the city of Portland, it may be appropriate to tell it here. As you all know, before making his study, Dr. Conant decided that he would not attempt to evaluate any school system. He was going to reveal the names of the schools he had visited, but he was not going to say where he observed what practice, or what he thought about the performance of any particular school. This meant that those of us who have had the privilege of working with Dr. Conant were in general unable to locate the specific places where he observed things that interested him. On one occasion, however, when we were discussing the teaching of English composition, he told me that I should make some effort to look at the teaching of writing in Portland, Oregon. Recognizing that it would be wise to heed this advice, I made a special effort to visit the Portland schools on the next trip I made to the Coast. And there I found in very successful operation the exact pattern of teaching of English composition which emerged later in the Conant Report as Recommendation Number Six.

You will understand then my amusement when later I happened to read the article which Dave Austin wrote on the Conant Report for the *BULLETIN of the NASSP* (May 1959). Dr. Austin took Dr. Conant to task for failing to indicate whether his recommendations were practical and specified Recommendation Number Six as an example of something requiring further evaluation.

A third source of the strength of Dr. Conant's Report seems to me to lie in his high degree of specificity. Professionals have tended to avoid making specific recommendations, usually on the grounds that each community, each school, even each pupil is unique, so that broad generalizations are not likely to have valid application. I do not oppose this view of the profession. Indeed, I share it. But I recognize also that there is great strength in an individual stating his own point of view and suggesting that others adopt it as a standard. It may be true that many pupils will not profit from writing a theme every week, as Dr. Conant recommends, but I suspect that the overwhelming bulk of the people will agree with Dr. Conant that nearly all pupils will. The very specificity of the recommendation may help find a favorable response.

Because he has such great prestige, because he has elected to inform himself through observation and study, and because he has the courage to be forthright in specifying what should be done in schools, his reports do have impact on what is done in schools and do justify the very careful attention of the best professionals.

HIS CONTRIBUTIONS TO ESSENTIAL INGREDIENTS OF QUALITY

The quality of a secondary school depends in the main on the nature of its program and its adaptability to the needs of its clients, on the quality of its professional staff and the chance that staff has to do good work, on the funds available, and on citizen understanding and support. In all these areas, Dr. Conant has made contributions of fundamental importance.

1. *Program.* When the Conant Report is under discussion, most people probably think first of its recommendations on program. Most of the details of the Report certainly deal with this matter, and it is a rather rich discussion, ranging from matters of guidance to particular course offerings and ways of grouping pupils. Each of us might have some private quarrel with one or another of Dr. Conant's recommendations, but we would have to agree, I think, that the school Dr. Conant envisions is highly individualized. By that I mean a school in which the program is adaptable to the needs of individuals and in which special and deliberate efforts are made to see to it that needed adaptations occur.

From the point of view of educational philosophy—our concept of what constitutes a good school—we should be thankful that his Report is rooted in this concept and that it supplies so many specific examples of the services needed in schools which meet this standard.

I pass over a discussion of those implications of Dr. Conant's Report which I think may fail to lead to improvements in quality. I do feel certain lacks in some of the recommendations—in the rather static quality which assumes that if any course in physics is taught, physics is being learned, for instance. But my purpose is to illuminate a few implications which may have positive impact, and there are plenty of these.

2. *Staff.* The question of staff quality—that is, the characteristics of the people who make a good staff—is a major question which Dr. Conant has avoided treating in the reports issued up to now. Possibly he intends to study teacher education at a later time and does not want to take positions in advance on the major issues in that field. But Dr. Conant has had some very trenchant things to say about staff load, about the relation between the number of members of a professional staff and the number of pupils. This emerges not only in his recommendations on English composition, but also from his general picture of the offerings and services of a large comprehensive high school. Several attempts have been made to calculate the minimum number of professional personnel necessary to operate a school of the type Dr. Conant envisions. Under the leadership of the late Don Ross, the staff of the New York State Department of Education studied this question. They concluded that a school which supplied all these services efficiently would have to have at least one thousand pupils and fifty or more professional personnel. My staff made a similar analysis, but came to the conclusion that a five-hundred pupil high school of the Conant type was feasible but would require not fewer than twenty-five professional members of the staff. The ratio, again, was at least fifty professionals per thousand pupils.

In his new book *The Child, the Parent, and the State*, Dr. Conant elaborates on certain of the implications of his reports. On the question of staff size he says specifically (page 54) that he is prepared to accept the recommendation that there should be at least 50 on the instructional staff for every thousand pupils in a school system. This is a more radical proposition than it at first appears. If this ratio existed generally today there would be more than 1,800,000 persons on the instructional staffs of public elementary and secondary schools. Actual employment this year is below 1,450,000, leaving a shortage above 350,000. Most of the school systems which we regard as good are at or near the level of fifty professionals per thousand pupils. Think what this must mean for those many schools which are below this level.

3. *Funds.* The funds necessary to operate good schools compromise another ingredient in quality which Dr. Conant did not directly treat in the first Report. He must have felt the significance of the gap, however, because in the new book he goes into this question in detail and relates it specifically to the question of staff size. He agrees with the Educational Policies Commission that the cost of operating a school is proportional to the size of the staff and the level of its salaries. He sketches several ways of estimating what the needed sums are, and concludes that the financial needs of public education are very great indeed. In a footnote, he refers to efforts of other agencies to calculate the "deficit" in educational financing, citing the Educational Policies Commission, the Rockefeller Brothers Fund the NEA Research Division, and the President's Science Advisory

Committee. He also makes his own estimate of this deficit and concludes that nearly seven billion dollars are needed.

4. *Citizen Support.* Dr. Conant's views on program, staff, and funds follow the general lines of other reports traditionally supported by the profession. But Dr. Conant does not stop here. There are in his work deeper implications which may in the long run have greater impact than any of his specific recommendations. If I read the impact of these reports correctly, perhaps the most important lesson is respect for professional status and professional knowledge. Dr. Conant visited and evaluated schools in company with a professional staff. He consistently relied on this staff, and in every case he worked through the professionals in the schools concerned. He has worked with professionals, not against them. In effect, he says to the citizen, that the citizen who would evaluate his school has the obligation to take as detailed and as honest a look, uncolored by preconceived notions, as Dr. Conant himself took. In this attitude I find the recognition of the profession of education which I think essential for the improvement of American public schools, and I am more grateful for this than for any other feature of these distinguished reports.

Thus, Dr. Conant emerges as the architect of citizen understanding and support of American public education. In the words of the Educational Policies Commission: "... the quality of an educational enterprise is largely determined in each locality. High quality in a school depends directly on the character of the community at large and on the abilities and attitudes of the parents, the school board, the administrators, and the school staff. The attitudes as well as the decision of local school officials reflect the views of local citizens. Thus, the taproot of quality in a school is a vigorous public commitment to education based on understanding of what education can do and what good schools are like."

Here is the most significant of all the implications of Dr. Conant's report for quality in education, for more than any other private citizen, he has dedicated himself to creating an understanding of what education can do and what good schools are like. This is a service of unparalleled magnitude to American education.

HOW MUCH AND WHAT KIND OF TESTING PROGRAM FOR TODAY'S SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *S. P. Bomgardner*, Principal, Junior High School, New Cumberland, Pennsylvania

DISCUSSANTS:

Allen Hyatt, Principal, High School, Cullman, Alabama

R. H. Miller, Principal, High School, Trion, Georgia

Summary of the presentation made by CHARLES C. HOLT

FIRST of all, we must be able to justify any test given in our school. In order to do this, each test must have a real purpose. Before choosing a test, the user must be clear on the purpose for which it is to be given and, after the testing has been completed, do a follow-up to see if his purpose has been achieved.

Generally, it seems wise to begin measurement in two very broad areas—scholastic aptitude, which we usually refer to as intelligence, and achievement in basic skills and content fields.

In order to determine the question of what to measure in achievement, it is extremely important that a school study its curriculum. This is, of course, important in any testing program. Some of us will wish to measure basic skills, while others may choose to test general educational development.

Interest tests are important too, but they are less dependable and, unless a school has specialized personnel to interpret their results, it is advisable to place testing emphasis on the areas of aptitude and achievement.

It seems reasonable to state that, by all odds, the most important reason for conducting any testing program is to improve instruction and guidance.

A basic principle of a good testing program is to administer tests when they are most useful. Ideally, tests of scholastic aptitude and achievement would be given every year and cumulative records of the results kept. But most schools must be satisfied with a program which is less than ideal for budgetary reasons. Where it is possible to give tests only in certain grades, preference should be given during transition or decision-making years. These might include grades 6-7: (Transition to junior high), grades 8-9: (Transition to senior high), and grades 10-12: (Transition to out-of-school activities).

Charles C. Holt is Assistant Superintendent-Principal of Proviso East High School, Maywood, Illinois (on leave). He is presently Director of the Joint Project on Testing of the American Association of School Administrators, the Council of Chief State School Officers, and the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington 6, D. C.

Perhaps the most difficult decision to make in a testing program is the selection of tests to be used. There are about seven major test publishers. More than five thousand different objective tests have been published and the number is growing daily.

The selection of appropriate tests for a school is decidedly not a decision to be made by any one person. The tests should be screened by some competent individual and the more promising ones brought before a Committee for Consideration. The use of references will be helpful in checking reliability and validity of tests.¹

It goes without saying, of course, that in the final analysis the use of test results is the real pay-off. There are several uses such as the following: (1) to help schools compare their pupils in aptitude and achievement with national norms for the same type schools; (2) to check on the progress of pupils after a period of instruction; (3) to diagnose weaknesses and strong points of individual pupils; and (4) to use for counseling purposes.

The matter of how much and what kind of testing for today's secondary schools is not one which can be given a flat this-or-that answer. There are a number of considerations to be given to this problem, including budget, philosophy of the school, availability of personnel sophisticated in the use of tests, etc.

¹ Buras, Oscar K. (Editor). *The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook*. Highland Park, N.Y.: The Gryphon Press, 1959.

Summary of the presentation made by DAVID MILLER

*Read by George F. Gray, Principal, Woodrow Wilson Junior High School,
Port Arthur, Texas*

IN A discussion of this subject, it seems pertinent to begin with the question "Why?" Before going into the question of "How Much?" and "What Kind?" of testing, it is necessary to think for a moment about the objectives we hope to accomplish in a testing program. It is not until we know just what we want to do that we can begin to decide the nature and quantity of the tools that we should use to accomplish the task. Why, then, do we establish testing programs? Specific objectives will vary in each locality, but, in general, the objectives to be accomplished in a program of standardized tests might encompass the following: (1) to gather data that will give the teachers and counselors information about the strengths and weaknesses of each student; (2) to help identify the exceptional student at both ends of the academic ladder; (3) to help teachers to analyze individual learning difficulties and problems; and (4) to gather data which will help to point the way in curriculum development.

If these are the goals to be attained, what testing tools will be most helpful in achieving them and how often should these tools be used?

David Miller (deceased) was Principal of Thomas Jefferson High School, Port Arthur, Texas.

These questions were placed before a class of 25 graduate students in school administration at the University of Houston. All of these people are presently active either in guidance or testing or in school administration. Most of them are doctoral candidates, representing all sizes of schools. The consensus of this group is summarized as follows:

Achievement tests should be given twice each year if finances are available. Tests should be in the fall if given only once a year.

Intelligence tests should be given in the spring. Ideally, these tests should be administered each year beginning at grade two. Second choice was stated as alternate years, with a minimum of five tests.

Aptitude tests should be given in the spring during the eighth and tenth grades.

Personality tests should be administered during the twelfth year.

Interest tests should be given at grades seven, nine, and eleven, with grade nine as a choice for a single test. The chief purpose of this type of test is to motivate the student to think of future plans—to *stir* interest.

Scholarship tests such as the National Merit Scholarship Test for juniors and the Scholarship Qualifying tests are given, of course, as the occasion demands. Care should be taken here to avoid over-testing. Beginning with the Merit Scholarship program, more nation-wide programs are now springing up. The AASA, the NASSP, and the Council of State School Officers have a joint committee which is currently working on this problem. In a letter from Dr. Martin Essex, President of AASA, addressed to school administrators over the nation, the following paragraph is quoted: "This project was undertaken because reports from the field suggested the need for a careful evaluation of what is happening to American education as a result of the increased emphasis on national, regional, and state examinations."

Individual testing should be done as often as the need arises. New students are usually tested upon entrance. Also, frequent situations arise in which it is necessary to give individual tests for specific, individual purposes.

It seems appropriate in this discussion, so far dealing chiefly in generalities, to point to certain specifics which might be desirable in determining the "What kind?" and the "How much?" of testing. For an example, I can find none more practical than that of the Berlin, New York, schools as reported by Stanley L. Raub in the December 1959 issue of the NASSP BULLETIN (p. 176). Briefly, their program is as follows:

Intelligence tests: Approximate forms of the *California Mental Maturity Tests* are given in grades 3, 6, 8, and 10.

Achievement tests: The *Stanford Achievement Tests* are given in grades 2 through 6.

Interest tests: The *Kuder Preference Test* is given in grade 9, and the *Brainard Occupational Preference Test* is given in grade 12.

Ability tests: The *New York State Junior High-School Scholastic Ability Test* is given in grade 8, and the *School and College Ability Test* is given in grade 11.

Various supplementary tests for individuals are listed also.

HOW CAN THE PRINCIPAL ACHIEVE EFFECTIVE SUPERVISION?

CHAIRMAN: *William P. Anderson*, Associate Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York

DISCUSSANTS:

John J. Gach, Principal, West Division, Niles Township Community High School, Skokie, Illinois

Richard L. Jones, Principal, Boca Ciega High School, St. Petersburg, Florida

Summary of the presentation made by WALTER L. COOPER

AN EDUCATOR of national prominence once wrote, "a school is organized that it may be administered, and administered that it may be taught." The author of this statement gave recognition to the whole field of school administration and at the same time charged that administration with the responsibility of the entire instructional program. If we may accept two other premises, then this problem is placed in proper focus:

1. That the school exists for boys and girls. What happens to them and for them is the most important aspect of the teaching process. Their development into adulthood with worth-while goals, ambitions, principles, values, understandings, and workable skills is the real purpose of the school.

2. That the "principal" as identified in the title of this paper is the recognized central figure in the supervisory leadership role.

In this leadership role, the principal will need to organize life within the school so that all factors—supervisors, teachers, pupils, and non-certificated personnel—will carry out their functions cooperatively and with increased understanding of the part each plays and each with an appreciation of his part upon the function of others.

The principal's leadership role consists of focusing his own best thought and those of his colleagues upon a common problem and organizing the results of this united thinking into a program of action.

The principal should recognize that, when ineffective teaching exists, his role is not to superimpose ideas, methods, and procedures, but to bring the teacher into contact with meaningful experiences which may contribute toward improved effectiveness in teaching. The most important single purpose of a supervisory program is to strengthen the learning outcomes consistent with the objectives of the school through continuous improvement in the instructional program.

Walter L. Cooper is Superintendent of the J. Sterling Morton High School and Junior College, 2423 S. Austin Boulevard, Cicero 50, Illinois.

In the relatively small schools, it generally follows that the person with time that may be available to carry out a program of supervision is the principal. It is important, then, that he provide for routine matters of administration to permit a significant portion of his time to be devoted to supervision. He should know if the learning outcomes in his school are consistent with desired outcomes. He should communicate this information to his staff and, in group and individual contacts, cooperatively attack the problems which contribute to points of weakness. He should closely identify himself with programs of experimentation, with the trying of new approaches, with the development of visionary ideas; indeed, he must in every respect assume genuine leadership and attempt to create the confidence of his staff in that leadership. In this role he needs to possess and communicate information, recognize the capacity of and make use of the talents of others, give credit to those who contribute, and lead in transmitting ideas into programs of action.

As school units become larger, a great portion of the supervisory responsibility must necessarily be shared and delegated to others. Large school systems frequently employ especially trained supervisors in subject discipline fields who serve in a staff relationship in the entire system. Again, in an individual unit building of that system, there remains the need for coordinating the assistance of all supervisors and of unifying the entire program of supervision. This is the responsibility of the principal.

In our own school system, the principal together with his division heads comprise the supervisory team. I say division heads since we have moved to the large-field approach with only six divisions in each building. These division heads are basically relieved of direct teaching responsibilities. We require that each division head teach one class and only in the smaller divisions do they teach more than one. This provides time for classroom visitation, teacher conferences, the continuous follow-up of specific problem areas, and group interaction of teachers. We provide a period in the school day when teachers are free from student responsibilities and are available for these other activities.

The principal meets regularly with his division heads from which there results coordination in matters of improved instruction, curriculum, and of course administrative problems. The principal and the division head work separately and together, but always cooperatively, with a teacher for which improvement in teaching is desired.

I would like to indicate three specific things we do which illustrate what has been said.

One, we believe that, if the objectives of the school are to be realized for each individual student, careful planning with him for his educational program is important. We are organized on an adviser-advisee system and the teacher who starts with a group of ninth-grade pupils remains with this group throughout the four years. Each fall, under the direction of the guidance division, a series of eight workshop meetings is held, bring-

ing together all freshmen advisers. Among other activities, each division head meets with this group at some session to acquaint the members with offerings, sequences, prerequisites, and other related information. The series of meetings precedes the advisers' work with students in completing four-year educational plans.

It may seem that this discussion has shifted from supervision to guidance, but we believe that the purpose of supervision, to improve the effective achievement of the objectives of the school, includes those things we do to realize the objectives. Further supervision comes through review and discussion with the adviser of a student's educational program by specialized personnel from the guidance division.

Two, we believe that it is our responsibility to assist teachers new to our school to become as quickly oriented as possible and to become really effective teachers. We further believe that there is a basic place for self-evaluation on the part of the teacher. To implement this belief, we have developed a work sheet to be placed in the hands of the teachers new to our system.

The worksheet includes a statement of purpose which is—The purpose of the worksheet is to present an opportunity for self-evaluation in the area of teaching and in the somewhat less tangible field of personal relationships. Having conscientiously evaluated himself, the teacher may see possibilities of enriching his teaching through different techniques and approaches. Subsequently in conference with his supervisor, he may raise questions in regard to methods of reaching desired goals. For after all, the chief result of this self-analysis is to develop the potentiality of the teacher. The worksheet which is divided into three major areas, each with several sub-divisions, is used as the basis of several supervisory conferences. The first conference immediately follows the opening of school and serves as an ice-breaker between the division head and the teacher. Items appearing on the worksheet form the basis of discussion and interpretation of our educational objectives and teaching expectancies. Subsequent conferences will follow self-evaluation and classroom visitations. The three major areas are: (1) effectiveness of and improvement of teaching techniques; (2) personal qualities—health and personality; and (3) personal relations with students, staff members, and community.

Three, we believe that skillful teachers may be of assistance in helping a less skillful teacher to grow. As an example, a few years ago a potentially good teacher of language who had entered the teaching profession late and who was somewhat inadequately trained in the functional teaching of the language showed early evidences of ineffective work with his students. Many conferences with the division head failed to produce the desired improvement. The principal and the division head carefully planned with the teacher and several other language teachers who had strengths in areas of the beginning teacher's weakness for a series of classroom visitations to observe these skills and techniques being effectively

used. Following the visitations, a group conference was held to discuss what the beginning teacher had observed and to permit him to ask questions. Careful planning had avoided the need for any face-saving and, happily today, we have an effective teacher.

In any school, supervision is one of the most important functions the principal performs and in the large school he must have much assistance organized as a team of which he is an understanding and democratic captain.

Summary of the presentation made by OTIS DELL MISER

SUPERVISION may have many different meanings. Before we attempt to discuss how principals can achieve effective supervision, we must first come to an agreement on a definition of the term. For the purpose of this discussion, let us assume that supervision is assistance in the development of a better teaching-learning situation.

The principal may develop adequate supervision within his school in many different ways. The administrative organization and/or the size of the school may both enter into the decisions of the principal. He may have one or more paid supervisors on his staff who are responsible to him for many phases of supervision. Again it may be that he is both principal and supervisor in the school. In either case the end result of supervision must be to work toward the goals established as administrative policies of that school. He must therefore establish a climate conducive to growth toward those goals.

One of the first tasks of a principal is to make possible the growth of the staff in ideas and skills. He must encourage his co-workers to think cooperatively about goals and ways of working toward them. He must himself be constantly seeking ways of working cooperatively *within* his staff.

While such a climate is being established, the supervising principal must encourage leadership in those who show aptitude in leadership. He should be able to release the full ability of groups with whom he works. As the principal seeks leaders, he must constantly strive to encourage experimental work, enrich group thinking, build group self-confidence, establish group unity, broaden the sharing of experience, re-evaluate goals, and emphasize the importance of leadership. By his actions he must convince those with whom he works that his greatest task is to release their greatest talents. They must be convinced that progress toward goals will not be made by the principal, but by the group as a whole. Thus the principal begins firm leadership and also begins to find other leaders within his unit.

Otis Dell Miser is Principal of Sweeny Senior High School, 105 Cornellia, Sweeny, Texas.

While the principal seeks to establish his leadership and the leadership of others, he will also need to consider the morale of those with whom he works. Morale may be defined as the mental and emotional reaction of the teacher toward his job. If the teacher feels that his ideas toward his job and the common goals of the group are looked upon with respect, he then will probably have a healthy mental and emotional outlook. The reverse is true if he feels that his ideas and labors are not respected. The leader of each group will need to be appreciative and diplomatic in dealing with all members. He must therefore strive to give recognition for each contribution; show respect for participation in developing policy; convince participants of fair and equitable treatment; and create ample opportunity for participants to gain and maintain greater self-respect. Thus morale begins to grow and flourish within the staff. Morale, however, can never be taken for granted. The supervising principal must constantly work for a wholesome atmosphere in which morale can flourish.

As members of the group begin to assume and discharge responsibility, they should be encouraged to participate in making decisions. One of the major sources of control by a leader is his willingness to share his authority in making decisions. Thus begins democratic leadership. After group members have shared in making decisions, they should be expected to live up to them. If a member does not choose to abide by the decisions thus derived, it is the unavoidable responsibility of the supervising principal to enforce decisions of the group. Fortunately, such enforcement is seldom necessary.

Teachers tend to live up to what their peers expect of them. As group decisions are made concerning established goals, teachers tend to learn what is expected of them. As a result, they begin to strive toward those goals by well-chosen methods. Their attention is focused within the school rather than on activities other than school work. They tend to become more interested in achieving worthy and established goals. They continue to use well-established plans as well as to experiment with other promising practices. Over all, they tend to become efficient members of the teaching staff.

The supervising principal must constantly remind himself that there is great value in both the older and newer teachers. New teachers usually bring new ideas and enthusiasm to the staff. Older teachers tend to lend continuity and the wisdom of varied experiences. Part of a principal's job is to criticize constructively, but he should be careful never to discredit the contributions of either group. Exchange of ideas between these groups will yield great dividends. Both will profit in the exchange. Each must be made to feel at ease and to contribute his best; healthy growth usually results.

Another facet of effective supervision is proper assignment of personnel. Each member of the staff has a job in which he will work best. One of the major tasks of the supervisor is to find that job as a cooperative effort

and then assign that member to it. Proper placement will usually yield happier teachers, less frustration, and a job well done.

With a favorable climate in which to achieve desired goals, with good group participation in establishing goals and means to their accomplishment, with leadership properly recognized and established, with teachers striving to do their best because it is expected of them, and with personnel properly and happily assigned, the principal is well on the road to achieving effective supervision.

HOW EFFECTIVELY CAN DEMOCRATIC ADMINISTRATION PROVIDE FORWARD-LOOKING LEADERSHIP FOR SECONDARY SCHOOLS?

CHAIRMAN: *W. I. Stevenson*, Principal, Charles H. Milby Senior High School, Houston, Texas

DISCUSSANTS:

Henry Antell, Principal, Parsons Junior High School, Flushing, New York

J. G. Blair, Director, Division of Secondary Education, Montgomery, Alabama

Summary of the presentation made by **C. F. McCORMICK**

Read by Calloway Taulbee, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico.

AN ATTEMPT to answer the question posed by the title of this article is fraught with many difficulties. Statistical measurement of the effectiveness of democratic administration cannot be successfully made. Repeated efforts of this kind have rather consistently shown that this question does not lend itself to this method of treatment. The writer has a strong conviction that democratic administration of the secondary school is the *only* effective way of producing leadership that will be forward looking. This conviction is based on more than personal opinion and on more than personal observation. Democracy as a way of life and a way of planning and executing common purposes has behind it the philosophical, psychological, and religious support of history.

It is a safe assumption that, before a group of secondary-school principals, there would be agreement that the purpose of administration is to lend every effort to facilitate optimal conditions for learning. One way in which this can be done is to systematize operations in the management and control of the school and to provide an organization of sustained cooperation. Establishing a routine needs no defense or further explanation.

C. F. McCormick is Principal of the Jarrett Junior High School, Springfield, Missouri.

tion. However, the organization of the school for sustained cooperation needs amplification and defense. The problem of establishing methods of free democratic cooperative living rests upon the administrator.

Administration must become the process of working with people to set goals, to build organizational relationships, to distribute responsibility, to develop programs, and to evaluate results. In short, the purpose of school administration must become the purpose of education itself.

In the first place, democratic administration makes for greater efficiency; and, second, teachers can better carry out policies which they understand through having helped will them into existence. Democracy capitalizes on the intelligence, resourcefulness, and inventiveness of all.

Exclusion of teachers and students in secondary schools from sharing in determining educational plans supports the idea that planning and responsibility for action may and should be separate—that makers of plans should have little to do with their execution. Such an idea follows the analogy of planning a house, a battleship, or any other structure. The analogy is fallacious. For the development of an educational program is a course of action; it has no arbitrary point of beginning and goes on and on with no point of completion.

When teachers share in the formulation of policies and procedures for their execution, they not only understand the policies but they also feel greater responsibility for putting them into effect, have greater enthusiasm for them, are willing to overcome more obstacles in carrying them out, and are better able to secure public support for them.

The functional viewpoint of administration places the administrator in a relationship with his administrative and teaching staffs that is different from the relationship ordinarily conceived or practiced. He is not working *over* but *with* other persons for the good of the whole enterprise. Traditional hierarchical forms of structure with one level of policy making and another level of operation are replaced. The traditional pattern is proving neither good administration nor good democracy. The real focus of administration is relationships with and between people. The materials of the administrative process are the ideas, feelings, and experiences of people because education is people and administration must be thought of as part of that which is being administered. The real reason for this new relationship is not always understood; not only is the development of the individual personality important as an end in itself; but only as changes in the thinking and experiences of teachers are effected by the process of democratic ways of working can teachers effect changes in the thinking and experiences of pupils. Administration itself must be a creative educational process.

Since effectiveness of democratic administration cannot be measured directly, it has to be evaluated by inference. One of the best inferences in evaluation is the behavior of the people who are involved in a particular organization. Staff morale often indicates the degree of democracy

in leadership. Krech and Crutchfield¹ have listed several criteria which indicate positive and wholesome morale.

1. The staff is held together by internal attraction.
2. There is a minimum of divisive friction.
3. There is self-discipline.
4. The staff members like to be with one another.
5. They are challenged by common goals.
6. They have positive attitudes toward staff objectives and organizational goals.
7. They want to maintain their staff relationship.

Summary of the presentation made by ERNEST STAPLETON

THE post-Sputnik era in secondary education with its multiplicity of issues has focused greater attention on the type of leadership currently available in the American high school. In fact, the whole question of a permissive *versus* non-permissive approach in education has been raised and many critics have seen fit to relate this battle directly to the area of educational administration. Because the secondary-school principal in our educational theory, as well as in the public image, has been expected to become the instructional leader as well as a technician in administrative procedures, this question of permissiveness *versus* non-permissiveness becomes most pertinent.

Can we negate the fact that any kind of administrative behavior dominated by either school of thought would be clearly revealed in curriculum design, supervision of staff and plant, instructional areas, and in the very practical problems of student control and behavior? The results of either type of administrative behavior are usually most obvious. For this reason, I believe democratic administration can be an effective framework for the operation of our schools and a means of providing the most forward-looking type of leadership in secondary education. In fact, this concept of administration offers a "compromise" element on a spectrum of administrative behavior without the excesses of either extreme.

Certain qualities are inherent in the democratic design which offers signal posts and safeguards for the proper and effective administration of any institution or group. What is our concept of democracy? Too many would have us believe that in its application to a school or to administrative behavior, the principal characteristics are to be found in permissive acts. The inherent qualities of which I speak can be witnessed in our own American governmental processes and they do not, despite trial and error, fit the description above, of disorder and disarray. These elements

¹Krech, David, and Crutchfield, Richard, *Theory and Problems of Social Psychology*. New York: McGraw Hill. 1948. Pp. 8-17.

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are: (1) a representative system of government; (2) a system of checks and balances; (3) the public forum. These elements and others exist for the purpose of protecting our basic human rights and for the purpose of involving every citizen as much as possible. These fundamental theses are equally important at the national level of citizenship as they are at the operating level of an individual school.

A detailed analogy of the processes involved would be applicable as follows:

1. The representative system of which we are so proud finds its counterpart in the committee which is used most effectively by many principals. The deliberation and eventual formulation of policy often originates at the committee level. In addition to this, representatives of the school often provide the liaison between the individual schools and larger units. There is a delegation of responsibility and reporting.

2. A system of checks and balances. The parallel here is obvious. It exists in the utilization of authority and power. This element involves a number of checking devices for the principal and his staff. They are revealed in the assignment of specific duties and responsibilities to each staff member according to his expertness and ability to contribute. Even the administrator with an autocratic bent can recognize the danger of treading upon the area of the subject matter specialist. Likewise the teachers can be saved many wasted motions through the application of administrative experience. The awareness which an administrator may have of his own limitations and those of his staff and of the varied experiences and talents evident in his staff is a general type of check and balance which may be most productive in the effective operation of his school.

3. The public forum or opportunity to deliberate, discuss, and make cooperative decisions is important in both areas. The NEA pamphlet entitled *Democracy in School Administration*, April 1953, stated this idea most concretely: "Those immediately responsible for the educative process should contribute to the determination of its policies." The characteristic of involvement or participation has perhaps a greater meaning than any other aspect of the democratic concept. People who feel worth while and respected are generally happier and more productive. The cooperative decision has a greater staying power.

Evenson has noted that a peculiar problem exists in the need to be practical and to "get things done" within the democratic setting. He refers to it as a conceptualization involving two aspects of leadership behavior.¹

May we also refer to the foregoing as the "compromise" element. Just as our governmental processes provide for the maturation of the citizen through a voting age requirement, the democratic administration of a school can provide for the professional development of the staff member.

¹ W. L. Evenson, "Leadership Behavior of High-School Principals," *THE BULLETIN of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, Vol. 43, No. 248, September 1959, p. 96.

Every teacher is not involved in every decision every time. The principal may employ technics which will make it possible to capitalize on the professional maturity of his faculty. It may involve committee work, personal conferences, departmental assignments, or other methods. The administrator may seek maturation of the staff through in-service training. Proper orientation will thus be provided for the new and experienced teacher. The principal will avoid what we might call "disorientation" of the staff through lack of planning and direction. A higher regard is made for security than for lack of direction and resultant fear. Discipline and responsibility may take precedence over rights in given circumstances. Building staff readiness may involve a certain "psychology of discipline" which leads to group self-discipline with the staff contributing primarily in the area of the formulation of policy and leaving the execution of policy to the administrator, although this should remain quite flexible. A combination of the characteristics described above make it possible for the compromise type of leadership to emerge.

Results of this type of leadership have been evidenced in the following: (1) increased initiative and personal and group activity; (2) maintenance of a fundamental program of education and yet allowing for flexibility and adaptation; (3) considerable experimentation; and (4) consistency with the democratic ideal which must remain our goal.

WHAT ARE THE BEST WAYS TO IMPROVE JUNIOR HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAMS THROUGH APPRAISAL?

CHAIRMAN: *Gordon Grindstaff*, Assistant Principal, Junior High School, Wilmette, Illinois

DISCUSSANTS:

Margaret L. Gordon, Principal, David G. Jacox Junior High School, Norfolk, Virginia

Sherman Hansen, Principal, Junior High School, Logan, Utah

PANEL:

James E. Frasier, Associate Professor of Education, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma

Winston Richards, Principal, Bancroft Junior High School, San Leandro, California

Forrest E. Long, Professor of Education, New York University, New York, New York

Summary of the presentation made by JAMES E. FRASIER

ANY evaluation procedure must be based on sound educational thinking if it is to be of value to the school which uses it. Obviously, no two schools are exactly alike and no two groups of evaluators approach the job from precisely similar points of reference. The local character of education in the United States and the diversity of persons engaged in evaluation make complete uniformity an impossibility. And yet, there is a need for commonness in our schools. The mobility of our population, today's instantaneous communication, and the very fact of our common American heritage make a degree of sameness among our schools imperative. For these reasons, among many others, junior high-school educators in Oklahoma have recently undertaken to write a manual of evaluation for junior high schools.

It is not that we are convinced that we have found or invented *the* answers. Such answers will never, I both hope and believe, be available. We think that we have given our junior high-school staffs a concrete something with which to start their thinking. If the manual has achieved this, it can be called a success.

It would be impossible, and fruitless, for me to attempt to talk about the manual itself. Rather, I intend to share with you our thinking as to the basic principles which we feel must underlie any evaluation procedure, with or without this or any other manual.

1. Junior high schools, much as they may differ in details, are essentially alike in their underlying purposes.

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2. Schools, as well as pupils, differ from each other markedly.
3. A junior high school can be studied satisfactorily and judged fairly only in terms of its own philosophy of education.
4. It is more significant to measure what a junior high school does than what it is or what it has.
5. A school should be judged as a whole. It may be evaluated from time to time in part.
6. The considered, subjective judgment of competent educators is an essential factor in the evaluation of the quality and character of a school.
7. A good school is a growing school. It should be judged by its progress between two different dates as well as by its status at a single date.
8. The bases and methods of evaluation should be such as to require active participation in the process of the part of the entire professional and non-professional staffs of the school.

On the basis of our experiences in Oklahoma, we have become convinced that evaluation, from within and from the outside, can be one of the rewarding educational experiences that a junior high school and its staff can have.

Summary of the presentation made by A. WINSTON RICHARDS

THE CASSA program for appraisal of the modern junior high school is an outgrowth of the Association's appraisal-accreditation plan for senior and four-year high schools which had its beginnings in 1949. Initially, a few junior high schools were admitted to the program as part of a pilot project to determine the effectiveness of the basic processes employed with the high schools. It was soon discovered that while the *principles* of the high-school appraisal-accreditation plan were entirely suitable for use in the junior high schools, the *forms* were inadequate and ill-suited. Thus, during the past two years, a committee of junior high-school administrators, working in conjunction with the CASSA Evaluation Committee, has developed appraisal instruments specifically designed for the level to be served. They are titled, *Procedures for Appraising the Modern Junior High School*.¹

A hallmark of the CASSA program is involvement of the total school personnel and lay people in four school-study committees which do a majority of the work in self-appraisal studies. The study committees are: administration, instructional staff, classified staff, and students. These committees work independently of each other, and their efforts are coordinated by a central committee consisting of the chairmen of the four

¹Available from the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators, 1705 Murchison Drive, Burlingame, California, at \$5 per set.

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basic groups. The forms these committees use are designed to induce self-appraisal of the *total* school program as it serves *all* the youth. After completion of the self-appraisal phase, a visiting committee of five persons spends at least two days at the school. Serving on the committee will be a representative of a college or university, a county school office, and the California State Department of Education, together with a secondary-school administrator and a person well versed in the field of curriculum.

Although the visiting committee observes the school in operation, visits classes, and confers with individuals, it is not an *inspection* team. It will have studied the reports of the school committees, and will meet with them individually for the purpose of discussing the self-appraisal. The primary objective is to assist the local personnel in seeing more clearly their needs, strengths, and weaknesses; thereby helping them plan more intelligently for program and structural changes.

In addition to the oral report made to the school committees, the visiting committee will prepare a written report culminating the total appraisal experience. It will also recommend to the Accreditation Commission the extent of accreditation to be given to the school. Herein lies another unique feature of the CASSA program.

The accreditation finally given is not to a high school or an institution of higher education, but *to the community in which the school is located*. It is a statement of the school's ability to meet the needs of all its youth and to meet the challenge of their aspirations. The basic accreditation is for five years, but it may be given for a shorter period in cases where considerable corrective action by the school is necessary to meet the established criteria.

Although this program of appraisal-accreditation for junior high schools is quite new, evidence is rapidly accumulating which attests to its effectiveness. The occasional reluctance of staff members to participate in the program generally turns to enthusiasm once the process is under way, and an awareness of the need for better instruction with a corresponding dissatisfaction with the *status quo* results.

The effect of participation on the student body may be quite beneficial. In some instances, the program has resulted in requests for more club and interest group activities. Since the *total* school personnel are involved, there is more assurance that these student needs will be met.

Finally, the involvement of lay people and the final accreditation to the community can do much to focus attention on the needs of the school as well as point out its areas of excellence. Some junior high schools in need of better financial support for program, staff, or facility improvements may find the CASSA plan of major assistance in gaining community understanding and support.

Summary of the presentation made by FORREST E. LONG

IF OUR society could see all of the implications of the present world situation, it just might decide that money spent for research and appraisal in education would be even more productive than money spent for research in industry. However, school people would be willing to settle for only a small beginning in sustained support for research in education. The findings of research would help the inquisitive intelligent citizen to make more trustworthy appraisals of the modern school and its program. Without such research findings, such a citizen is forced to find his guidance on a "catch-as-catch-can" basis.

We are directing our attention today to the question of how appraisal can be used to improve the program of the junior high school. A workable dictionary definition of appraisal is: "To judge as to quality, status, *etc.*" I like to think of appraisal as being carefully done; a conclusion arrived at by one who is well equipped to see the problem as a whole. Actually, appraisals often are not of this kind. A turn of the radio or television dial is likely to bring the voice of some self-appointed prophet whom I would judge entirely incompetent in the field of education. According to my standards, he may not be any more able to handle some of the complex problems of education than we in education would be able to deal competently with some medical controversy. Naturally, others would disagree with me. In other words, even though we think of appraisal as a process carried through by competent craftsmen, the decision as to who is competent becomes entirely subjective.

I can only applaud when I visit a junior high school where the principal and staff have accepted the challenge of helping all true friends of education to come to sound and dependable conclusions concerning education. In a word, in these schools the professional staff is a part of the process whereby school procedure is evaluated and appraised. School people are helping patrons to see that there is a need for better support for good education. Of course, this very process forces the professional staff to prepare themselves for this important responsibility. They have to know what they are talking about or they may do great harm and be discredited. To the extent that they "know," they can, and should, speak with conviction and at all times they will welcome and accept any challenge of the facts they present.

It is deplorable that we have some lazy and indecisive junior high-school principals. Unfortunately, they usually preside over inferior schools. Serious appraisal of a program takes time and effort. Unfortunately there is always a plausible excuse for postponing action. Further-

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more, appraisals may turn up disturbing facts. "Let's not rock the boat," has become the dominant theme in such schools.

It is most encouraging to observe a competent school man at work with his community groups. You will find him helping a PTA committee to understand the report card or working with them to create one they prefer. You will find him talking education and schools at Rotary or Lions. You will see the effect of his skillful hand in the report on sports in the school, or whatever the subject is that is being studied. You will find him pointing the way in community-wide programs of "Know Your Schools." Whether he has the time, or whether he is inclined to spend his time as educational salesman, he simply has no choice. The pressures against us are too great for any school to think that it can "go it alone."

It seems to me that patrons of junior high schools, more than those of any other units, need help in understanding and appreciating good education in their schools. While I can not prove the point, I am convinced that the need at present for educational statesmanship is greater at the junior high-school level than at any other.

In this presentation we have given little attention to the testing program. We have just assumed that it is essential for any proper evaluation or appraisal of school procedures. We have attempted to stress the point that the results of testing are of value only to the extent that they are used for purposes of improving the program. If the results can be used for direct internal improvement, well and good. If, however, public support has to be stimulated, then we are maintaining that the junior high-school principal must accept the assignment. Other studies of ours show that he simply does not have sufficient help in the school and that he only neglects his school duties if he has to spend his time as a promoter of education. I know all of this to be true, in many cases, but even so, he must still find the time. Under present conditions there is no other way.

WHAT IS THE ROLE AND FUNCTION OF THE LIBRARY IN QUALITY EDUCATION?

(Arranged in cooperation with the American Association of
School Librarians)

CHAIRMAN: *Mrs. Winifred Ladley*, Assistant Professor of Library Science,
School of Education, University of Oregon, Eugene, Oregon

DISCUSSANTS:

Royal K. Tice, Principal, High School, Brookfield, Wisconsin

William Vincent, General Consultant in Instruction, State Department
of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

PANEL:

Eleanor E. Ahlers, Executive Secretary, American Association of School
Librarians, Chicago, Illinois

Werner C. Dieckmann, Assistant Superintendent for Special Services,
San Diego County Schools, San Diego, California

Bright E. Greiner, Principal, High School, Espanola, New Mexico

Ross A. Wagner, Principal, Ernest W. Seaholm High School, Birming-
ham, Michigan

Summary of the presentation made by ELEANOR E. AHLERS

THE goals for quality education receiving such support throughout the country at the present time can be successfully attained only when schools have essential library resources and services—an adequate and well-trained staff, physical quarters and equipment, a wide variety of printed and audio-visual materials, and the necessary financial support. The quality of the library is one of the determining factors in the quality of the school.

Because of the emphasis on quality education today, the new school library standards recently published by the American Library Association, under the title of *Standards for School Library Programs*, pertain to very good school library programs and are presented in terms of the total program. The qualitative standards describe the principles, policies, and practices that determine a good school library program. The quantitative standards recommend the staff, materials collections, quarters and funds that are needed for the achievement of the qualitative ones.

Whether there be a multi-track program, core curriculum, or any of the other types of educational programs in existence in secondary schools today, an adequate library is essential. There must be books, magazines, films, recordings, and other materials on various levels of interest and

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ability for all the students and teachers in that particular school building. There must be a program of library services that contribute directly and effectively to the objectives of that school and its instructional program.

For the master teacher who may be instructing large classes of one hundred or more in size, a wide variety of up-to-date materials must be available in the school. For the follow-up discussion after such an initial presentation, books and other printed and audio-visual materials must be easily accessible to all students. For the student who is pursuing his own particular subject at his own rate of speed, various kinds of educational media and the services of a trained librarian to help with reading guidance and to assist teachers with their planning are needed. Whether the pupil be average, retarded, or accelerated, the library supplies for him the book, recording, or film that is meaningful and that satisfies his need.

The challenge to the school librarian today is greatest in providing for the needs of the academically talented student, in increasing the collections for mature readers, in teaching the use of library resources, and in preparing students for more effective use of college, university, and community libraries. Improved collections of materials in such areas as science and mathematics, for example, are essential for these gifted students. Individual research must be encouraged first by the classroom teacher and then given assistance by the librarian.

The function of the library, therefore, is to serve every aspect of the curriculum, to enrich teaching and learning for the total school community. The role of the librarian is that of a person qualified by education and library training, personality, enthusiasm, and ability to provide the resources and services that make the program a functional one.

No longer can the single textbook or even multiple textbooks fulfill the needs of today's youth. No longer can printed materials suffice. Today's library is the instructional materials center of the school, where audio-visual materials are also housed or are easily available. One library reading room is not sufficient in most schools. Conference and listening and viewing rooms are essential adjuncts. Several library areas may be needed in a multi-building or campus type school. Fluid classroom collections must be provided and easily transported. The library today cannot be contained within the four walls of one room. It must fan out through the entire school. The library staff must be large enough so that, in cramped quarters when the library is not always accessible to all students, the librarian can take the library to them wherever they may be in the building.

Quality education demands good school libraries. In one large American city at present, a citizens' group has initiated plans to improve school libraries in that city. Teachers who are knowledgeable about library materials require good libraries to make their teaching effective. Principals and superintendents who are striving to provide the best possible education for all the pupils make adequate provisions for the develop-

ment of good libraries. Staff, quarters, materials, and funds are needed to make good school libraries a reality. These are the tangible ingredients, but the intangible one of understanding and support is equally important. The development of good school libraries can assist all schools in reaching their educational goals.

Summary of the presentation made by WERNER C. DIECKMANN

WE ARE witnessing a most interesting development in our secondary schools today which will affect the quality of education for at least a decade to come. This development centers on provisions being made for adequate library facilities in both new and existing school plants. The two factors that are forcing some immediate decisions in this area are the sharply increasing numbers of students entering our high schools each year combined with the new emphasis on zest for learning. While major efforts are required to build anew or to expand school plants, to what extent is provision being made administratively for high-school libraries? What planning is being done to enable such libraries to facilitate learning in districts faced by phenomenal growth together with increased student interest in learning?

The writer has recently served on a number of secondary-school evaluation teams and in addition has visited with a cross section of high-school librarians. Observations and findings point up serious shortcomings which must be overcome by administrators fighting for this most important part of the secondary-school program—the library.

PROVIDING A LIBRARY COLLECTION IN A NEW HIGH SCHOOL

Minimum library collection standards for secondary schools are defined by regional accrediting associations, by state departments of education, and by associations of professional librarians. These call for a collection of from five to eight well-selected books per student in schools enrolling over 200 students. Thus, for a school that will house 1200 students on opening day, a collection of at least 6,000 books, costing approximately \$24,000, must be provided for in the budget for the new school building in the same manner that provision is made for chemistry tables, physics equipment, classroom furniture, and rollaway benches in the gymnasium. A trained librarian should be put in charge of ordering the books at about the time the construction contract is let, and clerical help provided as needed to prepare the collection, so that the library will be in operation for the opening day of school. Building the basic collection over a period of years or depending on book drives because of failure to purchase and

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prepare the collection before the school opens means years of short-changing thousands of students deserving a quality education.

MAINTAINING A BASIC COLLECTION IN AN EXISTING SCHOOL

Maintaining and improving the quality of the library collection in an existing school requires concentrated effort on the part of administrators and teachers working closely with the librarian. They will need to look closely at library budget standards established years ago. Such standards are totally inadequate in the face of today's book costs, demands for expensive books to enrich classes for academically able students, and the demonstrated increase in library circulation on a per pupil basis. In the last five to ten years, general book costs have risen sharply to as much as double, while many of the supplemental and reference books for advanced science classes show an even greater rise. Circulation of library books and calls on reference works have increased steadily as more and more students gained a zest for learning. In schools where library budgets have not been increased both on a per pupil basis and for enlargement of the collection to meet increased enrollment, quality of education has been downgraded by default.

SECURING MATERIALS FOR ACADEMICALLY ABLE STUDENTS AND CLASSES

Many titles considered to be part of a basic high-school collection are temporarily or permanently out of print. While this problem may be met through inter-library loan agreements with public, college, and neighboring high-school libraries, such agreements are only a partial solution. Other ways must be found to replace such titles with titles of equal worth to become part of the permanent collection.

One promising source of school library supplementation has been uncovered by some school districts. These districts have arranged to tap the technical library collections maintained by research divisions of large corporations and governmental agencies for those materials needed for short periods by a few students working on advanced projects. Further study and experimentation is needed in this area of industry and government sharing with education materials that would not appear in textbooks for years.

THE QUALITY OF LIBRARY SERVICE DEPENDS UPON ADEQUATE STAFFING

Library standards—whether state, regional, or national—call for staffing of libraries with professionally prepared librarians and competent clerical assistants according to the size of the schools. Trained school librarians are in short supply for a number of reasons, one of which is a lack of adequate clerical assistance. Where librarians are charged with the supervision of textbook distribution, accounting, and similar detail, recommended standards must be revised upward lest the available time of the professional librarian be channeled into clerical activity.

NEW STANDARDS FOR QUALITY EDUCATION

The American Association of School Librarians new *Standards for School Library Programs* can help administrators evaluate their libraries' contribution to quality education. These revised AASL standards include an extensive section devoted to the philosophy and function of the library in the educative process. Thoughtful study of this section and the application of the revised standards to the high-school library should become a faculty project—a project of the highest priority for every high school. The challenge to high-school administrators intent on developing *quality education* for their students is to make a searching study of the school library to exceed existing standards, and to make every effort to reach the revised AASL standards.

Summary of the presentation made by BRIGHT E. GREINER

THE fountainhead for quality education in the secondary school, in fact at any school level, is the school library. Of course, library practices should vary from school to school to be in accord with the nature and characteristics of the pupil population. Some of the library practices for the highest type of vantage ground education are effective in any school, while some should be used only in a particular school. Quality, and quantity too, in education with the great variance in pupil population from school to school cannot be reduced to a common denominator.

The function of the library has changed and waxed. Quality education cannot consist merely of transfusing the cultural heritage to each new generation. No longer is the school library considered to be only a repository of great books where one by one a few book-minded students come to read when they are not engrossed in lessons assigned in textbooks. The library now is a study center, but the objectionable features and negative attitudes of the study hall of yesteryear are gone.

The library, in working order for quality education, has well-chosen books—trade books, textbooks, paperback books, college catalogues, pamphlets, periodicals, and audio-visual materials. The library is a study center—a materials and service agency, a coordinating agency for the curriculum, and a curriculum and social guidance center.¹

For quality education at all levels of achievement, the work of the guidance office, the library and the classroom must be synchronized. At the beginning of the school year in schools attuned to quality, the librarian and the classroom teachers receive from the records office a confidential report giving personal data, including test results, reading

¹ Janecek, B. "Library the Pulse of the School." *School Review*, Vol. 65, December 1957, pp. 481-7.

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accomplishments, and scholarly attainments for each returning and new student. The librarian is fortunate—it is he who with the teachers has the opportunity to provide a firm foundation and exquisite mansion for the curriculum.

The role of the school library in quality education as played in some schools and as envisioned for many schools is hindered by the limited training of school librarians in adolescent psychology and guidance techniques. "Today's librarian knows and understands the factors that influence the growth and behavior of children and uses this information in developing rewarding relationships between them."² Schools of library science have the responsibility of training today's librarian; yesterday's librarian will not suffice.

The school library has a difficult part to play in helping to bring quality education to the whole mental range of youth as they come to the comprehensive high school. No Alladin's lamp appears except perhaps the guidance officers, teachers, and librarian working together; the quality of the product is commensurate with the mental ability of the student.

A. *Quality for the Low IQ's, Retarded and Needing Remedial Work*

Students with IQ's ranging 70-85 can be taught to use card catalog reference books and also how to find library materials. The close relationship of the teacher and the librarian working as a team will bring success in this type of quality education.³ The teaching, vocabulary and the learning expectation has to be revised down to the level of the low IQ group. The lesson units must be shorter. The test questions are prepared with the full realization of the low reading level of the group. Students learn by doing as simple research units are used. After the research unit is completed, students compare notes as to procedures involved. Students usually recognize their own limitations. Quality education for the low IQ's is never envisioned as a way to develop "clear thinkers."

B. *Quality for the Great Mass of American Youth*

The school library, in theory and sometimes in practice, provides for all the pupil population and, therefore, has all types of readers, including "non-readers" who cannot read and "non-readers" who have not formed the habit of reading although they can read. Included also are poor or slow or indolent readers. Sometimes readers in one area only are found, but the large majority read in various subject fields. Among the gifted are found the superior readers.

For quality in reading guidance for the mass of youth, there should be a well-rounded collection of materials in many fields for all reading interests, abilities, and levels. The materials should be chosen not by the librarian alone, but with the help of guidance personnel and teachers. The librarian should discuss the reading problems of students with

² Cleary, Florence Damon, "Changing Libraries for Changing Schools." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, Vol. 29, No. 8, April 1955, p. 605-609.

³ Jones, Griffith. "Teaching Library Practise to the Low IQ's." *Wilson Library Bulletin*, Vol. 31, April 1957, p. 621 plus.

parents and teachers when reading difficulties are found. Books should be introduced to class groups—perhaps they should be auctioned to the groups at times to reach those who do not come to the library at other times. Librarians should work with individual pupils and study all available records in the school that bring out the needs of the individual students. Quality education in a democracy really means hard work for teachers and librarians when youth, itself, is not trying to lift itself by its petard.

C. Quality for the Able and Ambitious

In a democracy it is not always the gifted who run a good race to the finish line. Motivated by personal ambition, there are many able students who have a zest for success—a desire to be of service to their generation. The school library enacts its most satisfying role with the able and ambitious. It is they who have ability sufficient and who seek every aid from librarian, guidance counselor, and teacher. To ferret out the ways to academic success is the major concern of the able and ambitious. They are a joy to work with, the more so when motivated by altruistic desires.

The able and altruistically ambitious do not drop out of school; they dig in and work with the triumvirate—guidance worker, librarian, and teacher. For these the school library is a training center, a materials resource center, and center of guidance par excellence.

D. Quality for the Gifted

The gifted students have become the special concern of the schools during the clarion call years—Post Sputnik. The potential contribution of the school library for the top two or three per cent of our students is enormous. To provide for the gifted through enrichment and to set up a climate conducive to browsing and study is important while also providing for quality education for the great mass of our youth. Wide reading is expected in courses for the gifted—many bibliographies should be available from which to make selections. In some courses, a book should be read each fortnight. Student publications should be available featuring research articles by students.

Research skills are taught both by the teachers and librarian. The gifted should be taught early the basic skills of research; many can benefit from reading materials above their grade level. Gifted students, many of them, need encouragement and guidance to develop the reading habit. Many, early in life, have become bored with the materials offered in classes. The library plays a stellar role when it becomes the functioning scene for instructional excellence in the education of the gifted.

Summary of the presentation made by ROSS A. WAGNER

THE role and function of the secondary-school library has changed as a new quality dimension is being injected into our educational thinking and planning. As we are endeavoring to develop the program of the comprehensive high school to meet the wide variety of needs and interests of all the children of all the people, we are coming to realize the emphasis that must be given to quality. The quality dimension cannot be attained without first of all seeing the role of the library in the educational picture. It becomes the "hub of the learning wheel." It reflects the philosophy of the school and enriches all parts of its educational program.

One of the first changes we find in the modern library is the concept that its program means service and activity throughout the school rather than merely within the four walls of the library itself. As a service center, its materials should flow freely when and where they are needed to classrooms and laboratories. In order to achieve this, there must be a close working relationship between teachers and librarians. It means too, that the librarians will go into the classroom when it is found that they can be of greater service there than in the library itself.

In quality education, no textbook is sufficient today. A variety of library materials enriches the school program by making it possible for every student to participate to the extent of his ability and interests. These materials add motivation, zest, interest, and understanding to class work. They challenge students to think and analyze which is more important than acquiring facts from textbooks. The seminar, which is coming into practice as a method for advanced courses in high schools, requires extensive use of the library. In its role as a service center, it must really be a laboratory where materials are used skillfully and effectively by students and teachers individually and in groups to enrich classwork and to create, stimulate, and expand individual interests. Through such use it contributes to the growth and development of students in independent thinking.

The ability to solve practical problems has become the principal ingredient in quality education for all students. Their ability to understand methods, principles, and major concepts in different fields and apply them to practical problems is inherent in the process. This shift in emphasis from facts and information to analysis and understanding, places new responsibilities upon the school library. The fact that these materials will be needed by students with a wide range of ability and skills demands that the library extend the quantities and types of materials available. In many seminars, teachers are recommending the purchase of classical and standard titles by students, sometimes in paper-bound editions, and

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school librarians are exhibiting good editions of these titles to guide their selections.

Still another role of the modern secondary-school library in its attempt to be the "hub of the learning wheel" is that of being a resource center of instructional materials for the entire educational program. In addition to reference books, periodicals, newspapers, pamphlets, and information files, it includes audio-visual aids and other new types of learning aids. Functioning as a material center, it includes collections of tapes in foreign languages, films for science and mathematics, maps, charts, and transcriptions of all kinds. The well-trained professional school librarian will anticipate service as both a teacher and as an instructional materials specialist. In this capacity it is just as reasonable to recommend a film-strip, a radio program, or a recording as quickly as to recommend a book to the teacher or pupil who comes for help in planning his work. The role of individual reading guidance is still a vital and important one in the life of the librarian, but it no longer is his sole function. Much of this role is now achieved by having the librarian work closely with the teachers and assisting them in planning voluntary reading programs with their students. Some librarians have intensified their reading guidance activities by forming library reading clubs to review and discuss good literature.

As we become concerned with quality education in the comprehensive high school, we have come to place more importance on the guidance and counseling functions of the school. The library program serves as one facet of an over-all guidance program. The collections of guidance materials have been improved by selecting professional books, periodicals, and reference materials for guidance directors. Large collections of vocational, occupational, and educational materials are needed by people in this field.

Still another facet of the guidance program which can be implemented by the library is in the development of special interests and hobbies. The librarian is in a unique position to help students in the solution of personal, social, and ethical problems, by informal guidance and by recommending appropriate reading materials.

As a resource center of instructional material for the entire education program, the librarian becomes a very important person in curriculum improvement. In the capacity as a materials specialist, she will be expected to assist in planning curriculum and in doing necessary research. As the person with specialized training in library science, she is acquainted with methods of selection, evaluation, and processing, and will know the sources from which material can be obtained.

In summary, we might say that the role of the library in quality education is that of being the heart of a good school program. It is the hub of learning activities from which services radiate to every department. The library is so integral a part of the total school program that it is difficult to

say where the school stops and the library begins. Our modern philosophy of secondary education calls for a teaching program enriched by a wide variety of resources which include not only all printed materials, but other teaching aids as well.

HOW MUCH HOMOGENEOUS GROUPING IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Jack K. Mawdsley*, Principal, W. K. Kellogg Junior High School, Battle Creek, Michigan

DISCUSSANTS:

L. Donald Hahn, Principal, McKinley Junior High School, Cedar Rapids, Iowa

Harmon L. McClellan, Principal, Junior High School, Edinburgh, Texas

Summary of the presentation made by CLAYTON E. BUELL

THE trend toward homogeneous grouping in the junior high school is increasing because of a combination of forces. Some schools have grouped pupils by ability for many years, but have said very little about it because it wasn't fashionable. Educators know that when high academic achievement is the objective, it can be accomplished by grouping pupils homogeneously. Actually, most schools never abandoned grouping by specialized ability in such areas as athletic varsity teams, choruses, orchestras, and certain college preparatory subjects.

In another respect schools have been grouping pupils somewhat homogeneously and have found that it was necessary to adapt their offerings accordingly. For example, the average IQ in one junior high school is 118, while the average in another is 89. Each school reflects its neighborhood, and each neighborhood is somewhat homogeneous. In each school, the curriculum was fitted to the pupils in that school, as is recommended by the best educators. And the schools became quite different because each did its job well. If the two were somehow combined and pupils were grouped heterogeneously, both groups of pupils would lose.

Meanwhile, other forces are at work. State departments of education have in many cases made reimbursement contingent upon grouping by ability. For example, the state encourages school districts to form special classes for retarded, educable pupils. For brighter pupils, they make several provisions. Junior high schools are encouraged to move senior high-school mathematics and science courses down into the ninth grade,

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and ninth grade courses down into the eighth grade *for the academically talented*. Foreign language as a college entrance requirement is given in the eighth grade *for gifted pupils*. Developmental reading has been required for pupils in grades seven and eight, but in grade seven only *for accelerated pupils*. The science program is differentiated in the seventh grade *for accelerated pupils only*. Thus state departments assume that schools are grouping by ability in grades seven, eight, and nine, for in no other way can these provisions be made.

Every principal knows that some teachers can do a magnificent job with classes that are heterogeneous. But every practical administrator knows that the size of classes affects what can be done, and that the type of teacher in the classroom is of paramount importance. An excellent teacher can individualize and group within his class, even with thirty-five to forty pupils, but he will stay up nights planning for it; an extremely good teacher can make anything work! But the average teacher and the teacher who is below average will normally do a much better job with a class that is grouped by ability—especially if it is a large class. And *half* of our teachers are below the median, the “average”!

According to some educators, research indicates that pupils learn better when grouped heterogeneously. Much of this research should be questioned in terms of the teachers that are in the schools and in terms of the schools themselves. In the experiments, these questions may well be raised: “Are the classes typical of the one we have?” “Are the experimental teachers like the ones in our schools—no better, no worse—half of them average or below?” “Will teachers in general continually put the effort into their work that the experimental teacher did?” “Does not the experiment itself have a psychological effect on the teacher—and on the pupils—that is not present in classes generally?”

Research can do much, and it can easily show what is possible. It so often shows what is possible under certain limitations and procedures that may be impractical; it leaves out the method of getting all teachers to work each day on the high plane that they can reach. It does not and can not cover the intangibles that are present in a subjective situation such as teaching and learning.

Principals know the situation as it exists, with the large classes, with the average teachers, with the lack of special continuous motivation. Principals, and teachers too, feel that pupils accomplish more when grouped homogeneously. They haven’t measured relative achievement in a scientific manner, but they see the day-by-day teaching in an “action-research” setting. Their opinions should be given a great deal of weight.

Junior high-school principals in and around Philadelphia were asked this past December, in a questionnaire on homogeneous grouping, to state what their practices are and to give their opinion of what the trend should be. The replies showed that about half of them had heterogeneously grouped home rooms, but that about three quarters of them grouped

pupils by general ability in academic subjects in grades seven and eight, while practically all did so in grade nine. In school life, activities grouping was done on the basis of ability and interest. In non-academic subjects, heterogeneous grouping was used. Criteria for grouping most often mentioned were reading level, IQ, school records, and teacher judgment. Other criteria mentioned were arithmetic test scores, battery of achievement tests, course selection (in ninth grade), and such traits as interest, drive, and behavior.

The reasons for grouping by ability most frequently mentioned were these: (1) easier teaching situation and, therefore, more effective learning; (2) teaching methods and materials beamed more directly to needs of group; (3) more challenge for more able pupils; and (4) more opportunity for slow pupils to react and to interact.

Reasons given for not grouping by ability were listed by only ten per cent of the principals who returned the questionnaire. The most common statement made was that grouping tends to label the slow learners as such. They mentioned also the concentration of behavior problems in certain classes.

Junior high schools seem to have found a way to keep the advantages of ability grouping and of heterogeneous grouping as well. In general, heterogeneous grouping is used in school life situations, in home room, and in non-academic subjects, while homogeneous grouping is the method used in academic subjects.

Summary of the presentation made by GEORGE J. ELLIS

WHAT is meant by "homogeneous grouping"? It is a term describing the placing together in an academic class those junior high-school pupils whose academic performance achievement is quite similar. It is quickly granted that true homogeneity cannot be obtained in a group because of the many facets in the make-up of the individuals comprising the group. However, it is possible to reduce the heterogeneity of a group to the degree that the range of achievement in a group is much more narrow than one would find in a heterogeneous classroom. This is further qualified by stating that it is true that the individuals in a given homogeneous group in an English class will not be considered homogeneous in an arithmetic class as an individual's achievement will and does vary from subject matter to subject matter. One should not group in one subject area and expect the homogeneity to carry over completely to other subject areas.

George J. Ellis is Principal of Roosevelt Junior High School, Port Angeles, Washington.

Homogeneous grouping has been practiced in the elementary schools, particularly, in the primary grades in reading for many years. In the majority of primary classrooms, the teacher usually has from three to four reading groups within the classroom based upon the reading achievement proficiency of the pupils. This type of grouping can be carried on in almost any classroom and grade level. However, as the pupils move upward from grade level to grade level, their range of achievement becomes greater and greater until we find in some schools that the range in the grade level achievement in reading of beginning seventh-grade pupils is from third grade through the fourteenth grade. Thus it becomes most difficult and trying for a junior high-school teacher to take care of the needs of all the pupils adequately in a heterogeneous class. In a case of this kind, the average teacher teaches to the average child in the class, causing the below-average and the slow child to try to work beyond his capacity with possible frustration as one of the results while at the same time the above average or superior child does the assigned work with such ease and, through lack of a challenge, is in danger of becoming bored and may lose interest. Some symptoms of this state of being is day dreaming or the engaging in those activities which disturb the rest of the class. In order that the teacher may have a better opportunity to individualize the instruction so as to care more adequately for the wide-spread needs and achievements of the pupils in the junior high school, it is recommended that some form of homogeneous grouping be done.

The extent or degree of grouping that is done will often depend upon the numbers of pupils enrolled in a given school. A school or grade level having two classes or rooms in a common academic subject could separate into two groups—one faster and the other slower. It is recommended that, for grouping to be practical, the student body enrollment in a junior high school must be 300 or more. In the largest schools, it would be possible to group every class on a homogeneous basis; such a school would have to have adequate room space and numbers of teachers. Grouping may be done on the basis that the pupils are enrolled in homogeneous groups or classes in the common academic subjects and their classes in the non-academic subjects are on a heterogeneous basis. A junior high-school home room, that is to say where a junior high-school class has a consecutive block of time spent in one classroom with one teacher, may be grouped on a homogeneous basis with the pupils' departmentalized classes on a heterogeneous basis. A school may elect to have homogeneous grouping in one subject area only; the rest of the school's subject classes being on a heterogeneous grouping.

Almost all schools have, if their enrollment is large enough, remedial classes in the various grade levels composed of those pupils whose academic achievement is quite low. This is a form of homogeneous grouping with the main emphasis given to the slowest of the students or the lowest academic performance achievers. Other schools have made provision for

the remedial classes by selecting the highest performance achievers composed of the top ten to fifteen per cent of the pupils and placing them in homogeneous groups for instruction. This leaves the great mass of pupils, some seventy-five per cent of the student body, to be grouped heterogeneously. Yet other schools have made finer gradations in their homogeneous grouping and have many more performance achievement levels to the degree that all of the students are placed in homogeneous groups.

In this complex society of ours, each pupil has the right to receive that education that will cause him to make the best use of his aptitudes, capabilities, and capacities for his and society's advancement and welfare. The aim of homogeneous grouping or performance achievement grouping is to bring together those pupils who will be able to work and progress together under conditions permitting the fullest possible development of the individuals involved. It is recommended that homogeneous grouping be practiced in all junior high schools to the extent that it is feasible under the varying local conditions.

Homogeneous grouping may result in vertical enrichment or horizontal enrichment for the above-average or superior students. An example of vertical enrichment is the acceleration of a group of students who possess a high aptitude in mathematics and who cover seventh- and eighth-grade arithmetic, Algebra I, II, and III in the junior high-school years as contrasted with the usual junior high-school coverage up through Algebra II. The advantage in this acceleration is that the students will save time and may have the opportunity to have a year of higher mathematics in their twelfth-grade year. Horizontal enrichment may come to a group when the students study in areas not in the next highest grade level's course of study but over and beyond the regular course of study for that grade level.

When superior and gifted students find themselves in a group of their peers having the same level of achievement, they are challenged and stimulated to do their very best. It may shock that superior student who has fallen into sloth-like habits as the result of his past experiences in doing his work easily and receiving the highest grades in a heterogeneous group to find himself in a homogeneous group. He finds that he must exert himself and work up to his aptitude or ability in order to stay abreast of his classmates. This situation will give an over-complacent individual a more realistic view of himself.

In a school that has several gradations of homogeneous grouping, each student is expected to do as well or better than the quality and quantity of work that has been forecast for them. If they constantly excel and do better work than that expected, the program should be so flexible that the individual will be transferred to a higher group. The opposite is true for the under-achiever. If the individual does not live up to the expectations set for him, he should be transferred to a lower group.

In homogeneous groups of average or below-average academic pupils, we find the pupils having and enjoying the opportunity for the first time

of excelling in a classroom; their understanding of the work is more complete and they are achieving and working at a rate more natural for them. Leadership evolves from these pupils within their groups; pupils who have never had an opportunity to experience leadership emerge to lead; they become more ambitious and set their goals higher than they had in the past.

The course of study must be altered or modified to fit the needs of each achievement group. The lowest academic or remedial group is concerned with the acquisition of the minimum essentials.

To avert the negative aspects that confusion may bring to a grouping program, the selection and the placing of individual students in the various homogeneous groups should be done with care. Intelligence quotient scores cannot be the only criterion used; along with IQ scores, the achievement test results of the pupil must be considered as well as his report card grades. His teachers must be consulted to gain their opinion as to his industry, perseverance, ambition, emotional stability, and study habits.

WHAT ARE SOME PROMISING PRACTICES IN THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *I Owen Foster*, Associate Professor of Education, Indiana University, Bloomington, Indiana

DISCUSSANTS:

K. E. Livingston, Principal, Junior High Schools, Portales, New Mexico
Ray H. Witt, Principal, Senior High School, Bemidji, Minnesota

Summary of the presentation made by DOUGLAS M. BIVENS

Educational By-Products of TV Teaching

WHAT are the ideas that should be discussed, tested, and revised that will provide a better evaluation of the effectiveness of television in the instructional program and its potentials as a resource in teaching? The following observations are offered by the staff of the Washington County Closed-Circuit Educational Television Project as a background for considering the proper place of television in the educational program.

The use of television in the instructional program is a new process. New tools, methods, or processes require those who use them to make changes and adjustments in accustomed ways of thinking and acting.

Douglas M. Bivens is Supervisor of Senior High Schools in the Washington County Board of Education, Hagerstown, Maryland.

Competition with established practices often places "the new" at a disadvantage. A number of important uses, however, are beginning to emerge as educators become more acquainted with the potentials of television as a resource in teaching. Many ideas are being tried as school systems work with television instruction. Some of the procedures will be more successful and promising than others. The effectiveness of television, the role it will ultimately attain, its impact upon instructional practices and concepts will depend upon how intelligently and imaginatively it is used.

A television set is a piece of equipment, not a teacher. Television does not produce or teach lessons. What is taught and how it is taught depends on a teacher, and is determined by educational objectives and principles. Television itself does not make a lesson good or bad. Televised lessons reflect the content and beliefs considered important, useful, and appropriate in a school system. The application of television techniques to education does not replace the teacher with an actor or a robot who needs no professional training in education. A lesson does not automatically become better, more forceful, or challenging because it is taught with television. Effective telecasts depend upon the ability of the teacher and associated personnel to plan, organize, and follow through on learning situations that are worth while and serve as an incentive to pupil action.

The television process must be understood, used intelligently, and coordinated with the other experiences of the school day. Television is not just a new audio-visual gadget. It is a medium of communication that gives the viewer an immediate and complete reproduction of what is happening. It is realistic and permits the viewer to "participate" in events with a sense of intimate association. Books, pictures, maps, films, recordings, apparatus, models, chalkboards, and bulletin boards are important instructional aids. Television does not replace or eliminate these aids but provides new and challenging ways in which they can be used.

A pupil's day consists of more than reading, writing, and arithmetic. It includes a variety of learning experiences. The pupil engages in physical and social activities. He develops values, appreciations, and attitudes. He studies the arts and sciences and learns about different vocations. Economics and social studies are part of his program. Most of these involve combinations of activities such as reading, listening, telling, looking, discussing, manipulating, using, and experimenting.

When television with its visual presentations and attention-holding characteristics is used, it needs to be coordinated with other types of learning experiences to provide a balanced program. Television can bring meaningful and challenging lessons to the pupils and can add another dimension to the school day.

Unique contributions can be made to the educational program through the use of television. Television as a medium of communication gives schools an opportunity to do some desirable things which otherwise are not possible or feasible or which can be handled more easily and effec-

tively. It facilitates the use of resource people from the community, state, and nation. They can be made available to all pupils in the system. Teaching equipment and materials can be used for the benefit of larger numbers of pupils. Television encourages broader use of existing audio-visual aids such as projection materials, models, mock-ups, and tape recordings. The television screen gives the teacher an effective means of directing and controlling the attention of the pupil. It provides a special, central point of concentration for group instruction. It implements the development of good habits of sustained attention, careful observation, and attentive listening. Lessons can be planned to utilize this effect. The studio teacher looks into the camera lens and immediately is looking directly into the eyes of each pupil. This seems to have a psychological effect that causes the pupil to give close attention to the lesson.

There are limitations to the contributions television can make to education. While television can make a contribution to the educational program, it is no universal panacea. It has characteristics which place limitations on the things it can do. In most situations, television is a one way channel. It communicates to the pupils, but they cannot talk back. This lack of communication requires the development of new procedures to handle classroom activities. The studio teacher cannot actually see the pupils he is teaching and must rely on past experiences or his accumulated knowledge of pupil difficulties to help him with the pacing of the lesson.

Teamwork between studio and classroom teachers is essential. Unless there is organization, opportunity for careful planning, and the development of well-understood lessons, the results will not be effective. Many people object to changes in their established routines and shy away from learning techniques associated with mechanical or new electronic devices. Teachers are more accustomed to working with group instructional processes than with the individualized pupil self-help type of situation created by many television teaching techniques. Because of television, content can be communicated with greater speed. There is danger of covering too much territory too quickly.

Television lessons are dependent on electronic devices and are subject to mechanical failures.

In addition to its unique uses and in spite of limitations, television can improve many educational practices.

It provides more time for planning.

It places greater emphasis on the selection and organization of learning experiences.

It encourages creativeness in teaching.

It stimulates the use of a variety of resources.

It acts as an effective in-service teacher training service.

It gives teachers more time to observe and study pupils.

In conclusion, I wish to comment that the Closed-Circuit Educational Television Project for the past three and one-half years has been most interesting and profitable.

Summary of the presentation made by JOSEPH J. DEVITT

A State-Wide Program of TV Teaching

(Read by Keith Thompson, Principal of Houlton High School, Houlton, Maine; and Vice President of the Maine State Principals Association).

THE "Nine O'Clock Scholar" program consists of two televised courses for gifted students in grades 10, 11, and 12, in Maine secondary schools. They are financed by a grant-in-aid from the U. S. Office of Education, under Title VII, of the NDEA. Each course is televised for 30 minutes daily, Monday through Friday, for a total of 175 days. They are viewed by participating students in their own schools. Each course carries one Carnegie credit toward graduation.

One course is entitled "Concepts of Mathematics." It is designed to teach the gifted student various concepts of the "new" mathematics at an accelerated pace, and to stimulate him to undertake independent study and research in mathematics. The subject matter includes set theory, symbolic logic, number theory, matrices, groups, fields, rings, and vectors. The science course is called "Science for the Space Age." It includes important topics from chemistry, physics, biology, and astronomy, presented in greater depth than is possible in most high schools.

Five commercial television stations in Maine are donating free time for the program. The mathematics course originates at WGAN-TV in Portland, and is carried simultaneously by WABI-TV in Bangor and WAGM-TV in Presque Isle. The science course originates at WCSH-TV in Portland, and is carried by WLBZ-TV in Bangor and WAGM-TV in Presque Isle. Although not officially a part of the research project, both courses also are carried by educational television station WENH-TV at the University of New Hampshire, Durham, New Hampshire. These six stations make it possible for a clear signal to be received by 90 per cent of the schools in Maine, by most of New Hampshire, and a part of northern Massachusetts.

Sixty-seven Maine schools are participating officially in the program. Almost 500 enrolled last September in each course. By the middle of January approximately 300 were still enrolled in one or both.

The students are divided by schools into four groups. One group has only the televised instruction plus the resources of their own schools. A second group also has the services of assistant television teachers who visit the schools bi-weekly to provide face-to-face help. A third group has no visits, but attends Saturday seminars once a month in a nearby school, where a television staff member answers questions and gives needed assistance. The fourth group has all of these services.

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The purpose of the variations in services is to attempt to learn how much face-to-face assistance gifted students need in addition to the televised lessons, if any, and to measure two relatively economical methods of providing this help. It is too early to report definite conclusions; however, it is interesting to observe that the assistant teachers report that these capable students generally are relatively self-sufficient. When they fail to understand some phase of the lesson, they usually do not write or wait for an assistant teacher. They consult supplementary reference materials and solve most of their problems without assistance.

In each course there is one basic textbook which is provided for each student by his school. In addition, each school must have a library of four or five texts which are used frequently to supplement the basic book. Many schools also provide most of the supplementary textual and periodical material recommended by the television teachers.

Mimeographed study guides, containing both required reading assignments and optional related activities, are provided by the television staff. Mimeographed unit tests are prepared by the project staff approximately once a month. They are administered by local school personnel and returned to the staff for scoring. The results are used by each school in determining the grade to award to the students. An extensive battery of standardized tests was administered to the participating students last September. Alternate forms of these tests will be administered in May of this year.

Nine men are employed full-time on the project. A research director is in charge of the standardized tests, and of recording, analyzing, and interpreting the results of the complete testing program. His task is to measure the effectiveness of the research in achieving its objectives.

Four men are assigned to each course, a television teacher and three professional assistant teachers. Their responsibility is to build and present the courses on television, to visit the schools, conduct Saturday seminars, and construct and score the unit tests.

Extensive use has been made of consultant services. The advice of superior secondary-school teachers of mathematics and science, and of professors and heads of departments in these areas in Maine colleges has been sought and freely given in the selection of subject matter. An advisory committee of nationally recognized test experts came to Maine twice to help develop the testing program and to advise concerning the interpretation and use of evaluation results.

Maine is a rural state, with many secondary schools too small to permit the formation of special classes of very able pupils. The purpose of this research is to test whether or not through television it is possible to present courses that will provide a genuine challenge to the best effort of gifted students. The research is attempting to measure (1) the effectiveness of the program in terms of growth in the subject taught; (2) the effect of participation in the program upon the success of the pupils in

their regular school courses; (3) the effect of participation upon changes in the pupils' attitudes toward learning; (4) the effectiveness of a truly challenging course in stimulating independent study, research, and additional learning; and (5) the extent to which gifted students can learn without constant supervision by teachers who possess competency in the subject.

The Maine State Department of Education sincerely hopes that through their research a practical and economical method of meeting, at least in part, a problem of long standing may be developed. If the experiment proves to be successful, a large share of the credit will be due to Dr. Roy M. Hall, Assistant Commissioner, Division of Statistics and Research, U. S. Office of Education, who contributed many ideas for the improvement of the original proposal, and to Dr. Kalmer Stordahl, Research Coordinator, U. S. Office of Education, whose sound counsel has helped to guide the administration of the project.

Appreciation is due also to the many secondary-school and college teachers who have given so generously of their time to assure high quality in the course content; to the commercial television companies who have donated free television time; and, perhaps most of all, to the principals of our secondary schools who in advance accepted on faith the quality of the two courses and permitted their students to enroll. Truly, this is a cooperative research venture.

Summary of the presentation made by LEE WILBORN

The Texas Curriculum Commission Study

TEXAS school officials and teachers are currently conducting a state-wide curriculum study that is somewhat unique in its pattern of organization and development. Emphasis has been given to a program developed by subject matter specialists in conjunction with a design for guidance services to implement the plan. It is expected that study committee reports will be completed early enough in the current school year to formulate a workable plan that may be introduced in many schools by September 1960. In suggesting standards and specific program requirements, careful attention has been given to a plan that will allow for local initiative and flexibility in application to individual community settings.

To implement the study, the Commissioner of Education appointed eleven curriculum commissions, including one for guidance services, composed of public school teachers, school administrators, and college teachers involved in the actual teaching or with background preparation in specialized subject matter areas. More than 200 individuals have served

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on these commissions, and, in the course of their work, they have involved thousands of other educators and lay citizens in the development of their recommendations. Each commission had the specific responsibility of developing a complete and "ideal" program for their specific area along with their suggestions for offerings at all grade levels where applicable. Their recommendations have included related suggestions that will affect teacher education, accreditation standards, instructional materials, textbooks adoptions, and the development of instructional guides at all grade levels.

During the first year of the curriculum study, 1958-59, the Fund for the Advancement of Education, financed a project in Texas which carried a weekly progress report of the curriculum commissions to a state-wide audience through nineteen local television stations. This program, known as "Texas Curriculum Studies," presented reactions from nationally recognized educators as well as many representatives from local schools and colleges in Texas. It served as the medium of communication between the working committees and citizens of the state.

Preliminary reports from the commissions have been published in 17 bulletins, which include Educational Guidance Services, English Language Arts, Physical Education, Health Education, Music, Art, Social Studies, Foreign Languages, Science, Mathematics, Business Education, Safety and Driver Education, Industrial Arts, Vocational Agriculture, Homemaking, Distributive Education, and Trade and Industrial Education. The reports have suggested procedures for classroom teachers, sequence of course offering, specific provision for talented students, new course offerings, and the dropping of certain courses.

Currently, committees have been organized in approximately 350 local schools and colleges. In each case their study is devoted to specific reports, and their recommendations will be submitted to a coordinating committee composed of chairmen of the eleven commissions, seven members of the State Board of Education and representative elementary- and secondary-school principals, who will have the responsibility for preparing the final report. It is expected that the State Board of Education will begin its study of the reports during the summer of 1960.

Several preliminary studies involving the instructional program preceded the development of the design which resulted in the present curriculum study. For example, a study of high-school graduation requirements by the State Board of Education immediately preceded the study and suggested appointment of the Curriculum Commissions. It is expected that the over-all curriculum improvement project will result in the adoption of new standards for accrediting elementary and secondary schools and no doubt will serve as the background for other school improvement projects.

Summary of the presentation made by EVERETT V. SAMUELSON

Financial Accounting for School Activities

IN SOME ways, educators have attempted a crash program in certain phases of the secondary-school program during the past three years. Language laboratories, increased expenditures for science equipment, accelerated classes, and schedule modifications are just a few of the many changes which are being made.

In the midst of this flurry of excitement, there is a danger that certain phases of the secondary school, particularly in secondary-school administration, are being neglected or, at best, the continuation of outmoded practices.

Financial accounting for school activities is one of the constant problems encountered by every secondary-school principal. Ranging from a few hundred dollars in small elementary schools to hundreds of thousands of dollars in large city high schools, the amount of non-tax money is truly staggering. It is probably the only multi-billion dollar business in the United States for which practically no financial information is available. Likewise, in no other business is there such a nonchalant attitude regarding the stewardship of the money as found in the individual schools. This is no reflection on the part of elementary- and secondary-school administrators. Actually in the great majority of the schools, every cent is accounted for and audits are made regularly. However, due to the absence of standard accounts and accounting procedures, it has been impossible not only to determine the total amount of money received and expended by individual schools, but also to identify the source of the money received and the purpose for which it was expended.

The new handbook on financial accounting for school activities, published by the United States Office of Education in September 1959 presents for the first time a classification and definition of standard accounts to be used in accounting for all money received by the individual school.¹ This handbook was the result of a two-year project of which the National Association of Secondary-School Principals Association was one of six major educational associations cooperating with the Office of Education in its development.

The handbook is organized into four parts. Part one, "Classification and Definition of Accounts," is really the core of the entire project. Standard accounts have been classified and defined by source and purpose. Two sets of accounts are presented—regular accounts and clearing accounts, under which all transactions of the individual school may be recorded.

¹ Everett V. Samuelson, George Tankard, and Hoyt Pope. *Financial Accounting for School Activities*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office. (Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Bulletin 21, 1959.)

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The regular accounts include money received and expended for the operation of the student activity program *per se*. The account headings for the regular receipt accounts include: admissions, sale of general activity tickets, dues and fees, sales, student rental of materials, advertising, guarantees, grants from the school district, gifts from other sources, and other receipts. Account headings for the regular expenditure accounts include: personal and contracted services, supplies, purchases of merchandise, health services, pupil transportation, operation of plant, maintenance of plant, fixed charges, and capital outlay.

The clearing accounts include money collected by a school which is not available for the operation of the student activities program. This set of accounts is included so that money received and expended for school activities and organizations may be identified separately from other sums collected by a school. The use of clearing accounts will provide an effective means for dealing with transactions that present a false picture of the financial condition of the school activities if recorded in the regular receipt and expenditure accounts. Examples of the minimum clearing accounts suggested are: board of education, out-of-school campaigns, taxes and deductions, non-student school organizations, returnable deposits, abatements, loans from the school district, inter-fund transfers, petty case, and miscellaneous clearing accounts.

Each of the accounts is defined in terms of student activities. A guide for recording receipts and expenditures is included, in which a representative list of typical receipt and expenditure transactions for school activities has been selected. The purpose of the guide is to aid the uninitiated, *i.e.* clerical help, to locate quickly the proper account under which the transaction is to be recorded.

Part two of the handbook organizes the regular accounts and clearing accounts into funds. Two systems of fund accounting are presented, single fund and multiple fund. The single fund system may be used by schools who wish to account for all their activities under one fund. The multiple fund system outlines six basic funds into which activities may be grouped for accounting purposes.

Part three of the handbook presents a suggested accounting system utilizing the recommended minimum regular and clearing accounts. It is not the intent of this handbook to recommend a particular system of bookkeeping, procedures for handling the money, or policies governing school activities accounting. The standard accounts and terminology may be used with either a cash or accrual basis of accounting, and with either a double entry or a single entry method of bookkeeping.

Part four of the handbook includes a glossary of terms used in financial accounting for school activities.

To illustrate how the use of the standard accounts can provide a meaningful analysis of the receipts and expenditures for an individual school to the board of education, the transactions of an athletic fund for a senior high school of 1,000 students is given.

ATHLETIC FUND MONTHLY FINANCIAL STATEMENT

February 1960

RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURES BY SOURCE AND PURPOSE

BALANCE, 2/1/60		\$1,522.12
<i>Regular Receipts</i>		
11—Admissions	\$809.55	
12—Pro-rated Share of Activity Tickets	105.00	
17—Guarantees	40.00	
19—Other Activity Income	190.42	
20—Grants from the School District	500.00	
Total Regular Receipts		\$1,644.97
<i>Clearing Receipts</i>		
1030a—Taxes and Deductions	\$12.00	
1070a—Abatements	16.00	
Total Clearing Receipts		28.00
Total Receipts		1,672.97
TOTAL RECEIPTS AND BALANCE		\$3,195.09
<i>Regular Expenditures</i>		
111—Personal and Contracted Services	\$217.00	
112—Supplies	115.33	
113—Purchases of Merchandise	25.00	
114a—Advertising	14.50	
114c—Travel Expense	249.50	
114d—Misc. Activity Expense	40.00	
121—Health Services	88.05	
122—Pupil Transportation	214.79	
124—Maintenance of Plant	19.25	
125d—Fixed Charges	5.00	
200—Capital Outlay	48.19	
Total Regular Expenditures		\$1,036.61
<i>Clearing Expenditures</i>		
1070b—Abatements		174.29
Total Expenditures		1,210.90
BALANCE, 3/1/60		\$1,984.19

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By combining the standard accounts given above with the school district accounts, it is possible to get a correct summary of the real cost of education to a school district. Likewise, the use of clearing accounts make it possible to present an accurate financial picture of money received and expended by an individual school. For example, the abatements used in the illustration represents refunds to the school and overpayments made by the school, which if added to the regular accounts

would falsely increase the amount of money actually received and expended by the school for athletics.

This system of financial accounting for school activities would make it relatively easy for an individual school to determine the amount of money received through the receipt accounts, the total amount of money expended through the expenditure accounts, and submit this information to the state department of education and to other agencies wishing to make comparable studies. It is only when items of financial information have the same meaning everywhere that accurate and true educational costs can be determined. The time is long overdue for administrators at the elementary- and secondary-school levels to put the financial accounting of school activities on a business basis.

WHAT PROBLEMS BOTHER PRINCIPALS MOST?

CHAIRMAN: *Charles P. Lindecamp*, Principal, Garfield Heights High School, Cleveland, Ohio

PANEL:

W. E. Combs, Specialist in Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Tallahassee, Florida

H. C. Johnson, Principal, Charlton-Pollard High School, Beaumont, Texas

William N. McGowan, Executive Secretary, California Association of Secondary-School Administrators, Burlingame, California

Edwin C. Mustard, Principal, Amherst Central Junior High School, Snyder, New York.

John Scheller, Principal, Amherst Central High School, Snyder, New York

William H. Warner, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Trenton, New Jersey

During the Convention a Question Box was placed at the Registration Desk for persons to deposit questions which they might have on secondary-school administration and supervision. These questions were then answered by the members of the panel and discussed by those forming the discussion group.

HOW RIGOROUS A PROGRAM FOR THE ACADEMICALLY TALENTED STUDENT IN THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *J. Dan Hull*, Director of Instruction, Organization, and Services Branch, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C.

DISCUSSANTS:

Harold P. Phares, Principal, South Broward High School, Hollywood, Florida

F. M. Peterson, Superintendent, Community High School, Pekin, Illinois

PANEL:

Howard G. Spalding, Principal, A. B. Davis High School, Mt. Vernon, New York

J. B. Bowden, Principal, Harlandale High School, San Antonio, Texas
Lester W. Nelson, Associate Program Director, Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York, New York

Stephen Romine, Dean, School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado

Summary of the presentation made by HOWARD G. SPALDING

DURING recent months, a great deal has been said and written about the need for developing more rigorous programs of secondary education for our most gifted young people. The assumption is made that our high schools are loafing places for the young. While this assumption may be correct for some schools, it is not true for many others.

Many of our gifted and ambitious young people are working hard in our high schools today. A survey in Davis High School last year showed that the average time spent on home study by our fifty highest ranking seniors was 11½ hours and that a number of these students were spending from twenty to thirty hours on study outside of school. Many were engaged in a variety of educational activities in addition to home study including studying for College Boards, taking music lessons, serving as leaders of school and community youth groups, listening to good music, and reading good books. While there are many young people who are not working to capacity, just as there are many adults who are not exerting themselves to the full, an indiscriminate effort to make school work more rigorous for everyone is not a sound approach to the problem.

A high-school program can be made more rigorous both quantitatively and qualitatively. The recent increase in the requirements for a Regents diploma in New York State from sixteen to eighteen units is such a quanti-

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tative change, although its effects upon the academically talented will be slight since most of these students have for many years earned from eighteen to twenty-two units while in high school. Increases in the length of the school day and in the number of days in the school year are in many cases needed. A six-hour school day, exclusive of lunch periods, and a 190 day school year should be considered the minimums for a good secondary-school program. The expansion of summer school programs to provide opportunities for academically talented students to enrich their education should be more commonly provided. Some of the experiments that give selected high-school students opportunities to work at colleges on Saturdays and during vacations represent a quantitative, and doubtless also a qualitative, improvement in their programs.

However, the greatest need for change is not quantitative but qualitative. There is much waste in our secondary schools resulting both from the teaching of material that is not worth teaching and from inefficient methods of instruction. At a time when research is producing new knowledge at an unprecedented rate, when social problems are becoming increasingly complex and difficult of solution and when the educational demands of business, industry, and the professions are being increased, we need to be far more critical than we ever have been both of what we are teaching and how we are teaching. If we want to make secondary education more rigorous and profitable for our young people these are some of the things we need to do:

We need to section pupils according to their ability to do the work of particular courses. It is unrealistic to expect that teachers can offer a maximum of challenge to academically talented pupils when they are instructed in heterogeneous groups.

We need to be more selective in the facts we teach. With the vast amount of information an educated person needs to know, there is no justification for wasting time in school teaching knowledge that has only marginal value or none at all. Before teaching any fact, we should ask the questions, "Why is this fact important? What difference will the knowledge of it make in the lives these young people are going to lead?" Unless we can give a sensible answer to both of these questions, we should not teach that fact. "When in doubt throw it out" is a rule that should be more generally followed by teachers in the selection of the facts they teach.

We should emphasize understanding of principles, motives, relationships, ethical values, causes and effects, possible alternatives, trends, and hypotheses. Facts are primarily important as a basis for understanding, but understanding does not automatically result from a knowledge of facts. We need to raise our teaching from the realm of knowledge to the realm of ideas and from rote learning to reflective thinking.

We need to eliminate unnecessary drill. Bright students justly complain that they are required to spend too much time doing problems that they

know very well how to solve, writing exercises from which they learn nothing, and doing assignments that are merely busy work.

We need to show our students the uses they can make of the understandings they develop. Knowledge is not enough. Understanding is not enough. Until students realize that what they learn can and should make a difference in their lives and that they can use their knowledge to transform their world at least to some degree, they will not gain the enthusiasm for learning that will enrich their lives.

We need to teach our students how to learn on the highest level of which they are capable. For generations the test of the truly educated man has been his success in continued self-education or—the extent to which he has been able to set his own intellectual goals and pursue them independently. Such intellectual independence has been expected only of college students. We must expect more of it from high-school students. The present trend toward long unit assignments, pupil planning, providing more time for independent study, the assignment of research papers, the encouragement of individual project work, and the use of self-teaching and self-testing aids to instruction need to be pursued to the limit of their usefulness.

We need to encourage creativity. All academically talented pupils have the power of creative thinking to some degree. We should stimulate their creative abilities by imaginative assignments and approving recognition of creative efforts whether entirely successful or not.

We need to test for the important outcomes of education. Nothing reveals more of the ineffectiveness of much of our high-school work than the tests and examinations which are given in our schools. These very largely involve merely the recall of facts. In a study conducted in Davis High School several years ago, 82 per cent of all questions given on tests at the end of a marking period required only the recall of factual information, 8 per cent required evidence of the understanding of principles or the ability to use knowledge in the solution of novel problems, and 7 per cent required some degree of application of knowledge to personal use. These results are probably typical. They account for much of the superficiality of our secondary education. A restoration of the essay type question to greater use can result in greater emphasis upon understanding and ability to use knowledge in the solution of novel problems.

We need to dignify and reward educational excellence. Every secondary school should have as well-developed means for recognizing intellectual excellence as it does for rewarding social or athletic excellence. The respect and desire for excellence in things of the mind and of the spirit, which are greatly needed in American life, must start in our high schools.

Summary of the presentation made by J. B. BOWDEN

THE title of my topic implies that the high school has some type of program for the academically talented and that the only question to be answered is to what degree shall the program be intensified. Although there may be no universal agreement of the definition of the academically talented, Dr. Conant states it is the top fifteen to twenty per cent. First, one must explore some of the many ways by which the needs of the academically talented might be met. The National Defense Education Act through the use of Federal funds is helping some of the colleges throughout the country give excellent training to a very small number of superior students in the fields of science and mathematics during the summer of the junior year. Some high schools offer summer courses where capable students work on scientific projects under the direction of a teacher. In other schools, the needs of those students who are able to work above the level of the group are met through an enrichment program in the regular class. The type of program which seems to be more widespread than any of these is one which is usually referred to as the major work class or honors class.

To say that every school needs to offer the major work class would be in error, and for a school to say that it has this type of program does not necessarily make it true. Obviously, the small school could little afford to furnish this special section for only a few students. In a large measure, the needs of the academically talented are met through the process of course selection. The students who elect to take such generally difficult courses as physics, trigonometry, solid geometry, and fourth-year English are usually the most capable.

Assuming that the school is of sufficient size to offer the major work class in one or more areas, just how difficult should the course be in comparison to the other sections? When we inaugurate a tough policy with the superior students, we should not try to make them maintain a schedule of work which is a lot tougher than that followed by adults. I am referring to the concept which has been made popular lately, that the superior student is supposed to spend seven hours per day in classes and at least three hours per night doing his home work. This is about fifty hours per week, which is more than most adults work.

The major work class does not have to be a lot more of the "same thing" in order for the superior student to make more progress than he would in an average class. Even the best student is a little hesitant to sign up for a course if he knows that he must spend many extra hours per week in order to make the same "A" he could make with just a little effort in the regular section. Maintaining the high grade is more important to the superior student than just "getting by" is to many of the poorer ones.

J. B. Bowden is Principal of Harlandale High School, San Antonio, Texas.

One of the first things which will enter his mind is the kind of grade he will make in this major work class. In order for the student to be treated fairly and in order for the school to be able to have enough students to take the course, some kind of weighted grading system needs to be worked out by the school. Some schools assure these students that as long as they "do satisfactory work" in the group they will get an "A," and, if they do not do the work, they will be transferred to another section. Schools which give grade point value to their grades can make a "B" in this section worth as many grade points as an "A" in the regular section. Others may tell the students when counseling them for the course that the teacher will give them the grade which she feels they would make if they were in the regular section. In other words, if she feels that the student would make an "A" in the regular section on the quality of work he is doing, she will give him an "A."

If the major work class is not supposed to be a rigorous work program for the academically talented, then what purpose does it serve? Its primary purpose should be to teach students to work independently, to think analytically, and to weigh and evaluate things for themselves. Through the accomplishment of these objectives, the student may enter college better prepared to do superior work. The major work class should not be intended to be used as a short circuit to college courses. True, it will enable a superior student to skip some of the more elementary college courses; but it should not be used as a plan whereby the student will be permitted to earn his college degree in a shorter period of time. This is one of the difficulties now; too much is trying to be crammed into too little, and people are not finding time to sit down and enjoy living.

Let the high school do a good job preparing the student for college, and then let him complete his college work in COLLEGE. While he is in high school, let him enjoy some of the things which an adolescent is supposed to enjoy, which should include developing his physical, moral, and spiritual self, as well as his intellectual abilities.

Summary of the presentation made by LESTER W. NELSON

RECENTLY the term, *rigor*, as applied to education has taken on a number of connotations which imply that unless a program is rigid, unyielding, austere, and imposed on the learner, it is not rigorous. If these be the criteria by which educational rigor is to be judged, those who seek improved quality in education through such means will have rendered a great disservice to education. The inevitable result of such efforts will be educational rigor mortis, the exact opposite of intellectual rigor.

Lester W. Nelson is Associate Program Director, The Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York, New York.

The quality of learning is a function of the presence or absence of desirable learning experiences. It may be said, too, that the degree of intellectual rigor actually existing in a program is, to a very large extent, a function of the condition under which learning takes place. This focuses attention on a number of conditions which may be regarded as requisite for the development of an intellectually rigorous program.

First, there must be a wide range of resources for learning. Rigorous, intellectual inquiry requires rich resources of varied kinds. The resources of books, films, tapes, laboratories, workshops need to be as diverse, extensive, and challenging as thoughtful planning and generous support can make them. True rigor requires that the learner assume a major responsibility for his own learning. This is not merely difficult, it is virtually impossible, under conditions where resources for learning are meager. Even a casual inspection of school budgets over a period of years in the same school or school system raises the question of whether the last decade has not seen an actual decline in the proportion of our educational dollars being invested in the tools of learning. Increased investment in physical plant and facilities, increased expenditures for personnel and other essential educational purposes, important as they are, can have only limited productivity unless the resources for learning also match these improvements. We need constantly to give priority of attention to expanding the range, raising the quality, and increasing the amount of the learning resources we provide for students.

Second, resources for learning must be accessible to the learner at times when they are critically important to him. Many conventional practices in our schools tend to make the satisfaction of intellectual curiosity difficult, if not illegal. Many of these practices are rooted in inflexible schedules, rigid instructional groupings, rules and regulations whose commitment is, to preservation of neat and precise immutability, an overwhelming regard for the custodial function. The twin conspirators—silence and immobility—too frequently frustrate and eventually defeat the efforts of students to learn. Accessibility of resources to the learner under flexible conditions for their use is an indispensable condition for quality learning. This flexibility must extend to both space and time.

Third, there must be time for the learner to exercise rigorous pursuit of excellence in his learning. This cannot be done under fixed, static conditions which, however suitable for some purposes for most individuals, cannot be equally good for all individuals and cannot be equally good for the same individual at all times. Student schedules which leave no room for self-determination concerning the use to which time is put or the duration of time required to satisfy his intellectual pursuit of an idea—such schedules place a sure premium on superficial performance within sharply limiting bounds.

Fourth, opportunity must be provided the learner for submission of ideas, hypotheses, interpretations, and tentative conclusions to the criti-

cism of his peers. Rigorous intellectual inquiry cannot be vigorously pursued or successfully achieved without the advantage of criticism and the necessity for defense. Such learning activities require small groupings and this, in turn, specifies the twin conditions of flexible scheduling and flexible grouping.

Fifth, the role of the teacher in motivating the learner to rigorous intellectual inquiry and supporting its pursuit becomes that of consultant and resource person rather than one of prime expositor and purveyor of information. A prime condition for the successful performance of this role is matching flexibility for the teacher in the use of time and resources. A rigorous program for the learner inevitably imposes a rigorous program on the teacher, although the reverse of this proposition is not equally true.

Assuming that the educational setting satisfies the condition here suggested as requisite for an intellectually rigorous program, how may the question posed by our discussion topic best be answered? The heart of the question is "*how rigorous?*" It is suggested that the degree of rigor will vary with individuals and will, in each case, be determined by the individual. The difference in degree among individuals will be a function of the differences in motivation, kinds and level of ability, past experience, maturity, physical vigor, and numerous other relevant factors. The school cannot predetermine an arbitrary minimum or maximum standard against which to measure rigor nor, were this possible, could it impose it upon students. The unique function of the school is to insure a setting wherein the conditions essential for rigorous intellectual inquiry are rigorously maintained.

The capacity of able and purposeful high-school students for rigorous intellectual pursuit is so well known to every member of this group that it requires no documentation and leaves no room for doubt. Our commitment to providing the conditions wherein intellectual rigor may flourish is not so well documented in our educational practices nor, indeed, is it so immune to doubt.

Summary of the presentation made by STEPHEN ROMINE

DEALING with definitions can be tiring and fruitless. But unless we think along the same line in using the terms "rigorous" and "academically talented student," we may get into difficulty. A number of related observations about these terms and about the program provided for the students merit careful consideration.

"Rigorous" may mean conditions of oppressive difficulty, rigidity, inflexibility, and uncompromising demand. These terms exist, not only in

Stephen Romine is Dean of the School of Education, University of Colorado, Boulder, Colorado.

the dictionary, but in the attitude and action of many persons who seek to make school programs rigorous. We should, preferably, think of rigor as relating to quality of experience, seriousness of purpose, thoroughness of preparation, meaningful application, and a resultant sense of invigorating satisfaction.

The "academically talented student" is one capable of consistently doing high quality work in academic areas. In identifying him, attention should be given to a pattern of attributes and indices including scholastic aptitude, interest, industry, past performance, achievement test results, evidence of physical and mental health, and teacher recommendations. Care should be taken not to categorize rigidly or in a manner that discourages the emergence of latent but as yet undemonstrated capability.

There are degrees of rigor and of academic talent, and the latter is influenced greatly by variations in student interest. Consequently, there is no one approach or program, no single answer, no guaranteed panacea that will serve the cause of providing a rigorous program for all of these students. A variety of programs is necessary.

Quality of experience is foremost and should not be confused with quantity. Purpose and meaning are especially pertinent. Too often a more rigorous program means only more routine work and over-indulgence in rote memorization and recitation of dates, places, names, and figures. Such conditions serve badly the cause of improving quality. Rigorous education does not mean a return to "the good old days."

One should have a broad concept of talent and of what to do about it. The dichotomy of academic and non-academic is dangerous, and high schools must be careful lest they encourage students to imprison themselves in specialties, particularly the more popular and publicized ones. Both breadth and depth of experience are important, within and beyond the academic area. Balance is a key word in this connection.

It is important not to under-estimate the capabilities of students, especially when properly motivated. The attitude of the learner about his expectancy level is very important. Scholastically talented youngsters can and will perform surprisingly well under proper conditions, which action usually tends to improve the intellectual climate of the entire school. Reason and sanity are called for, of course, but our tendency is to expect too little of ourselves and others, and we usually get it.

Rigor is more a function of the individual student than of any other single element in the teaching-learning situation. Talented students require more freedom, an opportunity to launch out on their own, to question, to imagine, to create, to reconstruct, and to develop the habits and skills of independent learning. In this activity, they need encouragement and guidance in the proper amounts and at the proper time. While some commonality of experience is essential, killing conformity should be avoided. More sound experimentation is needed in developing newer and increasingly effective approaches to the education of the talented.

The best results are not obtained by beginning after the student reaches high school. The program should begin in the elementary years, and it should be carried beyond into the collegiate years. Only through proper articulation of programs and coordination of efforts will the needed results be obtainable.

Our programs for the academically talented should be very rigorous in the sense described herein. They should particularly instill an attitude of enthusiasm for learning, raise individual expectancy levels, and develop habits and skills to promote satisfying success in learning throughout life.

IMPROVING THE QUALITY OF TEACHING

Arranged in cooperation with the National Association of State
Directors and Supervisors of Secondary Education

CHAIRMAN: *Virgil R. Walker*, Director, Educational Statistics Branch,
U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C.

DISCUSSANTS:

Samuel M. Graves, Principal, Gamaliel Bradford High School, Wellesley, Massachusetts

J. Wilbur Haley, Coordinator of Instruction, Fort Wayne Community Schools, Fort Wayne, Indiana

Summary of the presentation made by HOMER E. BOLEN

THIS topic implies that something less than perfection is practiced in the profession and that there is a possibility of improving the quality of instruction. The quality of teaching may be improved when teachers gain a better understanding of the learner, refine their educational goals, and develop those instructional techniques and skills which facilitate growth of the pupils toward those goals.

For the purpose of this discussion let us assume that we agree that a great deal is known about the nature of the learner and that we can accept certain educational goals as desirable in America. Who is responsible for improving the quality of teaching and how can teachers and others be motivated to try to improve the quality of teaching? The Federal government has subsidized certain segments of our educational program for the purpose of improving the quality of teaching, the state is legally responsible for improving teaching, but the local school district is in a position to be most effective in this respect.

Since others will discuss the responsibility of the principal and other local school personnel, I shall direct my attention to the state's responsibility.

Homer E. Bolen is Director of Supervision, Missouri State Department of Education, Jefferson City, Missouri.

organizations, including, of course, the schools. Right now these groups are studying their drop-outs, schools, community services, and opportunities in order to develop constructive services to aid youngsters who have already quit school as well as to help prevent others from dropping out. NCEY's objective is to build community cooperation and responsibility for assuring each youngster an opportunity to achieve his full potential.

This is a goal that must be high on every community's agenda. But action is needed today. Each year, the number of drop-outs will increase—if only because of the increased birthrate since the end of World War II. At the same time, automation is forcing employers to raise their hiring requirements. Thus, it is estimated that by 1965 there will be only two unskilled jobs available for every three school drop-outs.

The place to start a drop-out prevention program is within the schools. School officials need to be convinced that all students are important, even those in danger of quitting. They must also understand the need to take community groups into their confidence. Anything that will improve schools will help lower the drop-out rate. One important source for achieving improvement is the community.

WHAT SCHOOL POLICY FOR ADAPTING INSTRUCTION TO THE SLOW LEARNER?

CHAIRMAN: *C. B. Stewart*, Principal, Adkin High School, Kinston, North Carolina

INTERROGATORS:

W. H. Jenkins, Principal, High School, Decatur, Alabama

Barry Sutton, Principal, High School, Franklin, Tennessee

J. Marshall Swanson, Principal, Halifax County High School, South Boston, Virginia

Summary of the presentation made by R. T. JACOBSEN

ONE of the more pressing problems at the secondary-school level has been that of providing a realistic program for the slow learner; i.e., the student with low mental ability but who is not mentally retarded (generally IQ 75-90). These students are usually grouped into a general or practical program and may be within the lowest grouping in that program. Too often this grouping is heterogeneous and includes true slow learners with innate low mental ability, pseudo-slow learners due to a variety of emotional problems, discipline problems, and the academically

R. T. Jacobsen is Principal of Jonathan Dayton Regional High School, Springfield, New Jersey. Enrollment, 1,350.

disinterested. The academic program, more often than not, reflects a watered down version of a regular program with additional time in industrial arts and home economics. Instructional techniques and materials are usually the same offered to the regular students. The true slow learner has little opportunity for academic growth and school success within this type of program because he needs a different type of program with different instructional aims and techniques. The results of offering the slow learner a regular program may include: (1) early drop-out of slow learners possessing only minimal skills with no real occupational direction, (2) little academic growth because of the inability to profit from regular instruction and texts, and (3) increased discipline problems in school due to severe feelings of frustration and inadequacy engendered by a program in which they cannot be successful.

In order to alleviate the above situation, a four year district-wide program for the slow learner has been established at Jonathan Dayton Regional High School. It is called a core program because of its intent to provide a set core of educational experiences for slow learners in personal-social, academic, and vocational-areas.

The philosophy of the core program is, therefore, based upon the concept of meeting the unique needs of the slow learner; *i.e.*, providing a separate program whereby the slow learner can be successful in school. Success in school is equated with the accumulation of specific educational and vocational learning *via* concrete instructional techniques.

Students are initially selected for this program from eighth-grade classification test results. Those scoring low in group tests of reading and mental maturity are given individual psychological tests to verify proper functioning levels.

Those students whom the psychologist recommends for the program are interviewed with their parents. Parental consent and student accord are necessary before admission is granted. Students accepted to the program are tried for one year. At the conclusion of the year, the teachers and psychologist review the student's progress. If the team believes the student can progress adequately in a regular program, he may be scheduled for the regular program the following year (for all regular subjects or for part-regular and part-core program courses).

During the year, students who cannot learn in the regular classes are given individual psychological testing. Those diagnosed as true slow learners may be transferred to the core classes for part of or for their entire educational program. In this manner the scheduling is considered as extremely flexible.

The program of courses for the core program emphasizes academic growth, remedial instruction, and vocational exploration during the first two years. The third year is considered pivotal. During this year, the vocational emphasis increases with stress upon occupational study and selection. The courses in occupations and work-adjustment training lead to selection of an occupational endeavor which is learned on the job

in the fourth-year work-study program. The fourth-year work-study program is in reality a diversified occupations program under the direction of a specialized coordinator. Within this program the students are offered paid part-time work experience with the employer and school coordinator as supervisors. At the completion of the four-year program, the student has had academic and citizenship training as well as vocational study plus one year of part-time on-the-job training in a job of his choice. This training is realistic for the slow learner. With his high-school diploma and educational training, he should be in the most favorable position to take his place as a citizen, worker, and community member.

Summary of the presentation made by PAUL B. WAGNER

TEN years ago, this topic would have been, "Does Ability Grouping Contribute to the Quality of Instruction for all Students?" Today, to group or not to group is not the question. In our round with the critics, the criticism that smarted the most was this, "You are teaching to the middle group, the talented are neglected, the slow are dropping out." We all know that in a measure this was tragically true. If, the function of the public school is to develop scholarship, then we should tool up to achieve this objective.

The setting for my remarks will be a central high school, grades 9 through 12, including 1,900 boys and girls in a typical expanding American suburban community. More than half of the seniors plan to continue their education. This is referred to by many as a comprehensive high school.

The design for grouping in this school is basically a three step design—honors, regular, and basic. The scheme for grouping is flexible. The tracks are not rigid. The honors track includes advanced and honors classes. A student may qualify for one or more honors classes. The regular track includes the broad central part of the spectrum. One group in this central area is worth noting. This is the "Pe" group. These students have demonstrated high potential but low effort in junior high-school performance. These are under-motivated boys and girls who seem to have learned that they can get by without working very hard. These under-achievers are grouped in a section where they are challenged with a high-level academic program under the influence of high motivation techniques.

The basic track consists of three groups—special education, two-year terminal, and slow-learners. Of these, I will briefly describe the two-year terminal group. This group consists of below average, over-age boys and

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girls who were about to fail at the ninth- or tenth-grade level. These were potential drop-outs. They were placed in a two-year terminal program with parent's consent. Theirs is a basic curriculum focused upon future employment. Their curriculum provides for work experience, opportunity in and out of school. A certificate is awarded for two years of successful performance.

The obvious results of this rather extensive grouping is not obscure. Students have had their sights lifted in honors and advanced classes, and have reached a scholarship level which was before unobtainable in high school. Good students in the general program achieve a new place of leadership within their group with its concomitant satisfaction. Students in the basic level are receiving basic and functional instruction. They are happier, and they are remaining in school longer, because classroom instruction is tailored to their needs. Every boy and girl needs to have the opportunity to be successful. This opportunity is within the reach of all, only when grouping provides this opportunity.

Summary of the presentation made by WERNER C. DIECKMANN

THE State of California is making extensive provision, through numerous special education programs, for individual difference among the two and a half million students attending its elementary and secondary schools. Physically and mentally handicapped students receive specialized instruction from specifically trained and credentialed teachers. These special programs are financed by the state through the application of the "excess cost principle" in rather adequate amounts. The State Legislature, now in session, will probably adopt legislation which will provide "excess costs" for special education programs for gifted students and another for emotionally disturbed children and youth.

The extreme slow learner, having an IQ range from 50 to 80, was provided a special education program in 1947 when all elementary school districts and unified school districts having over 900 A.D.A. in the elementary grades were required to organize and operate special training classes for educable mentally retarded students. Providing classes for these handicapped students in small districts is a direct responsibility of the county superintendent of schools. Ten years later the required program was extended to include secondary schools.

Despite the shortage of well-trained teachers, and limited knowledge of what learning experiences will produce optimum results, secondary schools in San Diego County have accepted the challenge and have developed a number of promising practices.

Werner C. Dieckmann is Assistant Superintendent, Special Services, San Diego County Department of Education, San Diego, California.

The Grossmont Union High School District, after experimenting with special training classes in several of its six high schools, recently moved all such classes to one centrally located high school. A team of able and enthusiastic teachers and a coordinator of special education have developed a modified academic program balanced with physical education, homemaking for girls, industrial arts for boys, crafts, art, and music. All instruction in the academic areas is given in the special training classes. Students who need the security of small group instruction remain with the special teachers for enrichment activities while the greater number of more able students are integrated in regular classes for two periods daily. Careful assignment of students to regular classes and orientation of teachers are important factors that will assure the success of the program feature.

Orientation of parents, through parent study clubs began years ago in the elementary schools, is another feature of the Grossmont program. Understanding the student's strengths and limitations and how the high-school training class program proposes to help each student is being achieved in well-attended meetings for parents.

Supervised work experience for educable mentally retarded students is a major innovation that promises extensive returns for the time and money invested. A Grossmont student has the opportunity in his junior year to choose a vocational work program designed to introduce him to a real life job opportunity. Every effort is made to analyze the student's interests, strengths, and limitations and to guide him into a desirable employment field. If the initial choice and placement is satisfactory, the student will be given every opportunity to become a competent worker through on-the-job experience, balanced with daily class instruction built around the problems students report to their special training class teachers.

Students who are to work in the cafeteria will need to have a food handler's health certificate. This requirement becomes the subject of class instruction designed to acquaint the student with why the state regulation exists and how a health certificate may be secured. Similar instruction is organized as needed for full understanding of child labor laws, worker's compensation, social security, *etc.* Another example might be the review of simple fractions and appropriate drill when a student reports having difficulty understanding the gardener's reference to the composition of a given planting mixture.

In-school work experience placement is generally with the gardening crew, cafeteria, or bus maintenance garage of the school system. Wages of 50 cents per hour are paid during a limited on-the-job training period. Thereafter, the student is paid the appropriate minimum wage. Desirable job placement opportunities within the community are arranged and promoted by a full-time work experience coordinator serving both regular and special training class students. At this writing, mentally retarded students have had their greatest success working on gardening or nursery

crews. The work experience coordinator must carefully select a job placement on the basis of the person's teaching ability and understanding of the person with whom or for whom the student is going to work. Counseling the student and the job supervisors is an important facet of the coordinator's task which, in the case of the student, is supplemented during the student's daily class with his special training class teacher. As the working student begins to earn significant wages, the wise utilization of such money becomes an appropriate teaching-counseling topic if the goal of the program—a competent citizen—is to be achieved.

In fact, the administrators of this forward-looking program for mentally retarded youth envision the high school serving as a home base or source of guidance long after the student has left school.

The strong points of Grossmont's experimental program for educable mentally retarded youth include:

Teaching team approach made possible by centering district program in one school.

Ninth- and tenth-grade students receive modified academic instruction balanced with physical education and enrichment subjects.

Specifically trained teachers, both pre-service and in-service, provide academic instruction to all and enrichment activities to those who cannot be integrated in the regular section (two periods a day) providing physical education, music, homemaking, *etc.*

Greater parent understanding of the educable mentally retarded student and the special training program through Parent Study Clubs.

Supervised work experience opportunities for eleventh- and twelfth-grade students balanced with daily period of related instruction.

Extensive counseling by work experience coordinator and special training class teachers.

AN OMISSION

We regret the omission of the names of several authors of the following article in the January 1961 issue of *THE BULLETIN*, pages 41 to 49, entitled "Arlington Heights, Illinois, Studies Curriculum and Testing, Instruction Assistants, Team Teaching, and Modern Technology in Fourteen Projects." The authors were:

V. M. CASHEN, Director of Research, Township High School District 214, 502 West Euclid, Arlington Heights, Illinois

E. EUGENE OLIVER, Principal of Arlington High School, 502 West Euclid, Arlington Heights, Illinois

A. L. KULIEKE, Principal of Prospect High School, 801 West Foundry Road, Mt. Prospect, Illinois

HAROLD L. SLICHENMYER, Superintendent, Township High School District 214, 502 West Euclid, Arlington Heights, Illinois

CURRICULUM DESIGN— STRENGTHS AND WEAKNESSES OF THE TRACK SYSTEM

CHAIRMAN: *C. Benton Manley*, Administrative Assistant to the Superintendent, Public Schools, Springfield, Missouri

INTERROGATORS:

O. T. Freeman, Principal, Senior High School, Wichita Falls, Texas

N. R. Dixon, Assistant Professor of Education, Southern University, Baton Rouge, La.

N. E. Watson, Superintendent, Glenbrook High School, Northbrook, Illinois

Summary of the presentation made by J. DAN HULL

THE track system is one of numerous administrative arrangements used to help classroom teachers provide individual differences among pupils. An example of a comparatively inflexible type is to be found in Europe where, at the age approximately 12 years, children are assigned to different types of schools. The chief strength of the European system is said to be the providing of superior academic education for the small percentage who go to academic secondary schools. The chief weaknesses are said to be the perpetuation of class differences and failure to identify late blooming talents.

In the United States there are a few specialized high schools in large cities, but the great majority of secondary schools are of the comprehensive type. In comprehensive high schools an early effort to differentiate instruction was the assignment of each pupil to one of several different curriculums such as college preparatory, business, vocational, general or fine arts. Certain courses were elective even within a specified curriculum, but the requirements and electives in one curriculum differed markedly from those in another.

The multiple curriculum pattern exists in many schools at present, but frequently it is merely superimposed for guidance purposes on a constants-with-variables pattern. Thus it provides suggestions rather than requirements.

The constants-with-variables pattern provides one basic set of prescribed subjects for all pupils. With the guidance of teachers and parents, a pupil elects the remainder of his subjects from a school's offerings, keeping in mind the entrance requirements of the college he hopes to attend or other needs he anticipates after leaving school. Sometimes three-year or two-year sequences are required in elected subject fields such as foreign languages. This constants-with-variables pattern is used

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more than others and if adequate guidance resources are available, it brings to bear all the resources of a school on the framing of an educational program for the individual.

Ability grouping has been used in all types of curriculum patterns for many years. There was less emphasis on it during the late 30's because of the need that time for building citizenship and social cohesion. Ability grouping has been heavily emphasized in recent years because the nation has experienced a manpower shortage and has developed special needs for intellectual creativity and achievement.

The track system which has been publicized in recent years seems to be a variation of the multiple curriculum pattern. It seems to emphasize requirements in basic academic subjects, the placement of a pupil in a fast, slow, or medium track according to his ability, and limiting a pupil to the subjects in the track after he is assigned. Track systems vary so much from school system to school system that one should be cautious in generalizing about them. In general, however, these administrative efforts to meet individual needs of pupils are all steps in the right direction, but some fit best in certain situations and some have more strengths than others.

A track system might be most useful in an impersonal metropolitan community where there are wide variations in the backgrounds and abilities of pupils and a lack of guidance personnel. In general it would be most useful where it followed the flexible characteristics of the constants-with-variables pattern and least useful where it assumed the rigid characteristics of the European systems which do not allow pupils in one track to be in classes with pupils from another track. Some pupils belong in a fast class in English and a slow class in mathematics or *vice versa*. A track system which fails to recognize that a student may be superior in one aptitude and inferior in another exhibits a weakness as does a system which makes it impossible for slow pupils to be in some sections with able pupils. As a thoughtful and disturbed parent recently remarked: "If you place in one group all the kids who don't know anything and never allow them to associate with people who are knowledgeable, I don't know how you can ever expect them to learn anything!"

Summary of the presentation made by OSCAR E. THOMPSON

"**T**RACK SYSTEM" terminology has done little to alleviate the confusion of curriculum semantics. It is frequently used synonymously with "ability grouping" and curriculum patterns such as "college preparatory" and "vocational" programs of study.

Oscar E. Thompson is Professor of Education and Adviser, Major in Junior High School Education, Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa.

One principal in Iowa perhaps spoke for many of his colleagues in a personal note attached to some detailed outlines of the track system in English that they were reported to have in operation. The note said, "This is our English program at —. Hope this is what you want. See you in Detroit (NASSP Convention). P.S. What in the world is a track system???"

A distinguishing feature of known track systems in Iowa appears to be that of reversing the approach generally used in ability grouping. The content and sequence of courses are determined without necessarily doing it *for* the slow learner or *for* the rapid learner once each has been identified. The proper placement of a student on a track follows the determination of content and sequence of courses.

This is not to imply that individual differences are ignored. On the contrary, there is great concern for building flexibility into a track system to permit transfer from one track to another should a student be started on the wrong one—for him. This approach is an extension of elements of a "contract" system in which a student is encouraged to select the goals or assignments that provide the greatest challenge to his abilities.

Extensive and specific "approval standards" for accreditation of schools in Iowa since 1958 have resulted in some interest in curriculum tracks. One provision is that a study guide be prepared for each course and that it be evaluated annually. The intent is to place this responsibility upon the classroom teacher.

This procedure is leading to consideration of new approaches to curriculum. The track system is becoming, in some cases, the vehicle for greater fruition in curriculum improvement. Principals should encourage this approach. It places responsibility where it belongs—with those who are teaching the courses.

Thus far in Iowa, progress is apparent only in mathematics, science, and English. None has been discovered in the social studies. There appears to be persistent reluctance among social studies teachers even to favor ability grouping which, sooner or later, needs consideration in a track system.

Decorah, Iowa, has a track system in mathematics which culminates in Track I with mathematics analysis and statistics and Track III with business science. Track II is a traditional program. They also offer Track I in science with advanced chemistry and advanced physics in the senior year and Track III with practical science for seniors.

Mason City, Iowa, has an "honors group" of about thirty students in mathematics through analytic geometry and modern algebra and science through advanced physics and advanced chemistry.

Sioux City, Iowa, is well satisfied with three tracks in a grouping system which places about twelve per cent of the students in a high group, twelve per cent in a remedial group, and the remaining seventy six per cent in a broad middle group. An attempt to mix the remedial and the

middle groups this year met with disappointment. The remedial group was re-established.

Waverly, Iowa, has a program for advanced students in mathematics with algebra in grade eight and advanced algebra in grade nine. The rest of the program is a typical high-school offering except for experimentation with greater emphasis on advanced mathematics in high school with the cooperation of nearby Wartburg College for the more able students.

Summary of the presentation made by GLENN R. SNIDER

THE literature abounds with examples of efforts to adjust the curriculum and the quality of instruction to the varying aptitudes, interests, and capacities of the mass of pupils attending schools during the past generation. The major purpose of administration is to provide effective leadership so that this task may be accomplished. "Track programs" are devices used to achieve this end.

Others on this program have been charged with the discussion of strengths of "track programs." That "tracks" do not mean the same thing to all educators is beyond dispute. The modern "multiple track" appears, however, to be a modification of alternate curricula or programs of study which have long existed in many secondary schools. The device places students into one curriculum or "track" according to their abilities and likely future destination after the provision of guidance and counseling. The plan may or may not include flexibility in moving from one "track" to the other in course selection. Conant found many kinds of "track systems" in schools which he visited over the nation and was convinced that the educational needs of youth could be provided for in a comprehensive high school characterized by "tracks" with built-in flexibility for the individual, ability grouping of classes, and a good guidance arrangement.

GENERAL WEAKNESSES

Unless the "track system" has great flexibility and unless the temptation to group across the board is resisted, the extensive use of this device may well be the death knell of the generally accepted exploratory function of the junior high school since it may often preclude exploration by the pupils of learning areas which he should have the opportunity to sample.

Many "track" plans used over the past two decades contributed to what appears to be an unhealthy dualism in secondary education which places

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in one category the college-preparatory program and deposits in another category the other programs or "tracks."

In some schools the element of "status" has evolved in connection with election or assignment of these programs and many subjects, useful to large numbers of students, have wrongfully become completely identified with the college preparatory program.

"Track plans" often interfere with appropriate selection of individual subjects by students. It is desirable that every student be provided with a total curriculum tailored to his own unique capabilities, talents, interests, and objectives. This educational objective has often not been realized because "track programs" were instituted prior to the development of adequate guidance and counseling arrangements, and "tracks" which were adopted proved to be too rigid.

Although grouping for more effective instruction and learning is now widely accepted, there is extensive agreement that complete isolation of the talented student group is probably not desirable. Some "track systems" have encouraged this practice.

OKLAHOMA

Counseling and guidance arrangements have substantially improved in most of Oklahoma's medium and large secondary schools during the past three years. This improved service along with the pressure for more appropriate programs for the academically gifted pupil contributed to the further development of "track systems." Most of the high schools in Oklahoma, however, enroll fewer than 100 pupils despite the fact that much reorganization has occurred haphazardly in recent years. The students in these institutions will continue to suffer from inadequate educational programs. A real danger in many Oklahoma schools is the increasing tendency to attach high "status" to college preparatory programs with an accompanying tendency to reduce opportunities for individual movement from one "track" to another. Despite this tendency, some Oklahoma secondary schools have developed genuinely comprehensive total programs characterized by effective counseling, sensible grouping of classes, and adequate flexibility for the individual student in moving from one "track" to another.

Recently instituted graduation regulations of the Oklahoma State Board of Education reflect overpowering concern for the academic elements of the secondary curriculum at the expense of the fine arts area and health and physical education. Many regard this action as highly inappropriate.

Multi-level plans, similar to that at San Angelo, Texas, are appearing although chiefly at the elementary level. The most interesting development in secondary curriculum in the years immediately ahead should occur at the "rail" programs meet and merge with the concept of "tracks." The results should be interesting and profitable.

HOW IMPROVE THE INSTRUCTIONAL PROGRAM IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL?

CHAIRMAN: *Aaron H. Lauchner*, Consultant, Florida Central Academy, Sorrento, Florida

INTERROGATORS:

Henry W. Ford, Principal, Skokie Junior High School, Winnetka, Illinois

Edwin C. Mustard, Principal, Amherst Central Junior High School, Snyder, New York

John F. Stafford, Principal, Patrick Henry Junior High School, Cleveland, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by **WILBUR C. OLMSTEAD**

THE role of the principal in improving instruction is perhaps the greatest responsibility that a principal has, yet there are more inroads upon his time as it relates to this responsibility than upon any other of his functions. We would all agree that the curriculum is the backbone of any school. This strength determines the quality which a given school is capable of producing. There are many ways in which curriculum may be improved. The way in which an individual school goes about meeting this problem depends largely upon its age, size, growth, and community background.

The Herricks Junior High School is typical of many schools in a large metropolitan suburban area. Growth in the past ten years has been extremely rapid, making it difficult to keep pace with the needs. As a matter of fact, many schools including our own are out-grown. Whenever there is sudden growth, there are many demands upon a principal's time, such as additional housing, additional facilities, equipment, materials, and personnel.

A major factor in improving the curriculum of any school is securing and maintaining a thoroughly trained and competent professional staff. For the past several years, principals of the secondary schools in this district have carried on a program of teacher recruiting, visiting twenty or more colleges each spring. This has enabled the school to be staffed by better trained and more experienced people, representing a greater variety of colleges from many areas of our country. This diversification permits greater breadth and understanding of educational philosophy in implementing present courses of study and preparing new ones.

Another device used to improve instruction is to utilize department chairmen. At the present time these chairmen are given a reduced teaching load, but no additional remuneration. While department chairmen

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have certain routine duties, such as textbook inventory, and ordering of department materials, their prime responsibility is to improve instruction through meetings, classroom visitation, revision of courses of study, developing study units, and conducting research. One of the functions of the department chairman is to have broad plans made and available for each teacher, as a guide, for the first six weeks of school. The chairman also reviews plan books periodically and approves final examinations. A ten-page pamphlet has been prepared to assist teachers in the development of test and examinations.

The chairman submits to the principal a written report of each teacher once a year, and, at the end of the year, submits a summary of department accomplishments as well as an outline of the goals for the coming year. In this particular school, all subject matter areas are set up on a strictly departmental basis. This has come about as a result of not being able to secure sufficient qualified and properly certificated teachers for the block-time type of program which, ideally, is perhaps the best for the junior high-school type of organization.

Another method of improving instruction has been to utilize committees to study problems particular to the school. Currently, a faculty committee is studying the desirability of broadening the student grouping from the present heterogeneous method to something between the heterogeneous and homogeneous method. Remember, there are 1,260 pupils in this school.

Another committee is studying the manner in which this school might utilize teacher "aides," team-teaching, and teaching tools. The faculty feels that it is often possible to rush into that which is new and relatively untried, only to discover that the problems are more acute than they were before, yet they do not wish to overlook anything which may be of assistance in teaching boys and girls. Still another committee is studying the teacher load. Every school is faced with the problem of having to determine whether or not extra pay should be given for extra duties. It has been resolved at Herricks, by the establishment of a teacher load program, that a normal teacher load is based upon a seven-period day—five periods of teaching, one period of planning, and one period for study hall or other school duties. It is expected that a teacher shall reserve one night a week for faculty or department meetings, another night to help classes, and a third night for club activity. When a teacher exceeds these basic responsibilities, that teacher is paid additional money based upon a pre-arranged schedule. A teacher may earn as much as \$12,500, or as little as \$250.

There are many varied methods and devices whereby instruction may be improved. To go through each individual instance, such as class load, grouping, instructional materials center, developing special instruction for advanced enrichment or special courses, philosophy and objectives of the school, *etc.*, would be rather uninteresting.

In conclusion, I should like to mention one more point. Principals are certainly aware of the evaluated criteria developed and used in accrediting secondary schools. The latest volume has just been published, and, if a school wishes to re-examine its program, this volume can be of tremendous help to the departments in analyzing the curricular offerings. It is a study that should not be done lightly or quickly. This re-examination of program will immediately indicate the gains made in recent years and pin point the current weaknesses. Here is a project which the principal's advisory cabinet, composed of department heads, can be of great value.

Summary of the presentation made by HERMAN M. WESSEL

BECAUSE of the additional routine and administrative detail which have become the burden of a school principal today, due to the rapid growth of school populations and the increasing size of our schools, it is important to re-emphasize the principal's role of leadership in the instructional program. Many kinds of curriculum specialists are now being brought in to school systems to offer assistance to the principal, but the responsibility is definitely his, and it cannot be farmed out without risk of breaking up the wholeness of the school.

It is necessary to ask how changes in instruction can be brought about so that they will result in improvement. Any changes contemplated must be achieved in a general atmosphere which only the principal can create, establish, and administer. For the principal himself must be willing to depart from customary procedures that so easily become rooted in a school and have their tendency toward rigidity. He must have a flexibility that will encourage teachers to try new, sometimes "off-beat" approaches. He must have the kind of faith in his staff that will stimulate and allow teachers to use freedom to experiment with the untried, in both content and method. But no principal can initiate changes without the cooperation of the teachers in whose hands such changes in instruction will ultimately rest. Any instructional change which is imposed from the top—whether by the school principal, curriculum specialists, or top administrative officials—will quite likely find itself blocked at the classroom teacher's desk because of distrust and delay, and the insistence that "it won't work."

Changes in instructional programs may come about, too, at the initiative of interested, creative, and adventurous teachers—adventurous in the

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best sense of the word. Such a teacher was responsible for initiating the "block-of-time" program in our school. It is almost impossible to describe the *esprit de corps* and the pride which developed among these teachers, who were stepping out in new pathways and actually welcoming the unpredictability of what they might achieve.

Changes in programs are frequently forced upon schools by trends occurring over the country. One feels a pressure to get "on the bandwagon" so to speak. Trends and bandwagons should not be followed for their own sake—but they do indicate a movement which cannot be ignored. Such trends as the earlier introduction of the study of foreign languages, the earlier introduction of science, the newer concepts in the teaching of mathematics—these as well as the use of teaching machines, the use of television for large group instruction—are indicators of what we must face in the direction of proposed improvements in instruction.

Changes such as these, which call not only for the introduction of new subject matter into our schools, and new types of school organization, call also for new and different education of the teachers who will be responsible for implementing the changes in the schools—and their administration and the school boards—working with Foundations and other national groups that are promoting such opportunities. It is good that aid for such re-education is forthcoming—as we have already been experiencing—but why not such aid for the teachers of the humanities, the social studies, and the fine and creative arts, in the hope that changes in the instruction within those areas too would make for real improvement in our program?

No program for the improvement of instruction should fail to accept the challenge which is presented to schools at all levels—the education of mentally superior children, the *gifted* as some prefer to name them. For many reasons, their most effective education has been neglected.

Finally any change in our instructional program must have early, continual, and repeated evaluations. In the early days of our block-of-time, we provided for weekly meetings of all the teachers who were involved in that program. At those meetings the teachers exchanged their experiences in handling the new material, in presenting their individual and mutual problems of motivation of the pupils, and even of their attempts to integrate some of the learning experiences in the two heretofore separate and distinct learning areas. Although now in its fifth year, the teachers in this program are still scheduled for weekly meetings for such continuing evaluation of themselves and their achievements, as well as that of their pupils. Our experimental classes for the teaching of mathematics to the superior pupils were evaluated not only by ourselves, but by our consultants from the Horace-Mann-Lincoln Institute. These pupils, now in the tenth grade of our senior high school, are still being followed.

I conclude with a word of warning. Changes in program, changes in which there is hope for improvement of instruction, must be accepted with a faith in our own subjective professional judgment. For the present,

this may be the best if not the only method of evaluation available to us. To use the testing materials devised for other forms of instructional programs may well inject a limitation upon the creative effort of pupils as well as teachers. This could stifle, instead of free, the teachers to use novel materials and novel methods. We need to trust what has been called our professional intuition and not be apologetic in saying: "I believe." At the same time, along with our application in making these changes effective we should continue to develop new evaluating instruments, more in keeping with our new objective and our new materials.

Summary of the presentation made by PAT WOOSLEY

IN THE junior high school where excellence is expected, respected, and rewarded, the teacher must play an important role in curriculum development and improvement just as he must play a most important part in the total educational program. The wise administrator must select skillful, talented teachers and guide and encourage them to grow while teaching. Since curriculum building requires ample time as well as recognized ability, it is the responsibility of the administration to provide time necessary for both major and minor curriculum revisions. Teachers and other curriculum committee members cannot read assiduously, think clearly, discuss intelligently, and write understandingly when they are concerned with the multiplicity of tasks of daily teaching. So, it is necessary to provide the teacher with ample time outside of the school day to do these many tasks involved in curriculum development.

One method of doing this is to organize the staff into departments and let the chairmen direct the preliminary work leading to a workshop. Valuable curriculum efforts can be made only when the committee members are free to work for a sustained period of time, at least for four to six weeks. This makes the summer months as the ideal time for curriculum building. The school system should provide the salaries for the professional and clerical participants in the summer workshop as well as the necessary curriculum materials. A successful summer workshop requires a great deal of preparatory effort on the part of all. If a new program is to gain acceptance, every teacher must be involved; and, in most instances, they cannot all be invited to participate in the summer workshop. But their interests can be elicited through a planned study program based on such things as test results, follow-up of school's graduates, examination of curriculum bulletins from other systems, and reading of professional literature. The personnel of the curriculum committee should include teachers, administrators, curriculum consultants, college people and lay citizens.

Pat Woosley is Principal of Highland Park Junior High School, Dallas, Texas. Enrollment, 1,400.

All curriculum development would not cease from September to May since curriculum making is continuous and there is need for planning ways of implementing the curriculum bulletins. Our secondary schools allow for this implementation by providing school time for faculty meetings each week by dismissing schools an hour early each Wednesday.

Members of such lay groups as parent-teachers associations and dads clubs, as well as members of the board of education, should be asked to contribute their thinking to the curriculum improvement. In almost every community, there are professional people, scientists, and lay leaders who are eager to lend their competencies to curriculum improvement. Once involved in a school activity, these people often continue as useful resource people. Although judicious selection of such personnel is advised, by and large, they are not the kind of people seeking to gain control of the school. These laymen can be productive members of the committee. Their wide range of experiences should assist materially in developing a suitable curriculum for your school community. Their ideas may be secured through opinionnaires, group discussions, and by individual interviews.

Also, we should involve the pupils of our junior high schools in this curriculum planning. This can be done by having them read and evaluate the new textbooks before adoption and by having them assist in the selection of supplemental materials. The better pupils will give you valuable assistance on this. Pupil discussion groups can bring out their needs, desires, and educational goals.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS IN FLEXIBLE DAILY TIME SCHEDULES

CHAIRMAN: *Theo. F. Hotz*, Principal, Balboa High School, Balboa Heights, Canal Zone

INTERROGATORS:

Howard E. Miller, Principal, Junior High School, Faribault, Minnesota

Joseph G. Newlin, Principal, Memorial High School, Cedar Grove, New Jersey

Dale M. Smith, Principal, North Brandywine Junior High School, Coatesville, Pennsylvania

Summary of the presentation made by ROBERT N. BUSH

NO SERIOUS disagreement exists on the desirability of, and even the necessity for, developing more flexible high-school schedules of classes. The essential question is one of *how*. A compelling logic forces the conclusion that it is wise to vary time and frequency of class meetings

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and the size of classes according to the nature of the subject, the type of instruction, and the ability and the interests of the pupils. Pressures to emphasize foreign languages, science, and mathematics are seriously limiting attention to such subjects, for example, as the visual, the performing, and the practical arts. If they are not to be forced entirely out of the curriculum, some flexibility in the schedule seems to be necessary. Furthermore, with competent teachers in short supply, we are forced to use them more wisely than before. Hence, the necessity arises to arrange the time-schedule in schools so that the qualified persons available can be used in a variety of ways. Noting that flexibility of scheduling is practiced at the elementary-school and the collegiate levels, and in foreign secondary schools, we can no longer legitimately claim that flexibility is not possible in the American high school, if we would but loosen our strait jacket of units, credits, and marks.

Everywhere we turn today, we find proposals for educational change and experimentation confronted with the statement. "Yes, but it can not be scheduled"; or more plaintively, "How can it be scheduled?" Such questions are raised not to block progress, but rather in a spirit of inquiry, if not bafflement.

The problem appears to be twofold: both facets capable of solution but neither likely to be solved tomorrow. The first part of the problem is: for what do we want flexibility? Precisely, what do we want educationally? It is necessary to think through those educational problems confronting us that flexibility might help to solve—not in large and vague, but in precise and specific terms. The second question is: how to build a schedule, once having determined what it is that we want. This latter is a technical problem that ought to be capable of solution with the help of modern electronic computers.

Attention in this discussion will be devoted primarily to the educational—the first of the two problems. It may be of passing interest to report that, as a result of preliminary work underway at Stanford University in a cooperative effort between the School of Education and the Industrial Engineering Department, supported in part by a Ford Foundation Fund for the Advancement of Education Grant, we are beginning to have some confidence that we may be able to solve the technical problem of using computers to generate master time schedules for schools, once the schools know what they want. Within two years we may be able to write a program for a computer that will enable a high school to record what courses pupils want to take, the capabilities of the available teaching staff and available rooms, and then to have the computer formulate the best possible master schedule to accommodate these requirements, and at the same time to list each pupil's program, each teacher's schedule, room assignments, and class lists—all within the space of a few days at costs which local school districts could afford. If this can be done, it may eliminate the necessity for the school to have a principal, vice principal, or registrar, but it will surely make these posts much more attractive!

A more technical report of this aspect of the problem is to be published in the Spring 1961 issue of *School Review*.

The more serious of the two basic problems is for teachers, counselors, and administrators to answer the educational question of why we want flexible schedules. What is to be achieved educationally? For purposes of discussion, four educational requirements that flexible schedules might enable us to meet are proposed.

First, we need to provide all students with a more continuous study of all basic subjects in the curriculum over a longer period of time. As matters now stand, the only subject that is continuously studied during the entire span of high-school years by all pupils is physical education, followed closely by English. This is too limiting. We are now trying to find ways in which other important fields such as mathematics, science, and the arts may also be studied continuously and rigorously. This does not mean that all pupils are to study the same curriculum, with everything required, but rather that each of the basic studies, while given continuous attention, will be studied with greater or lesser concentrations, and with varying intensity at different times, according to the needs of the pupil. Present inflexibility in scheduling seriously limits the meeting of this requirement.

Second, all four of the basic types of instruction and learning ought to be undertaken in every course, in a balance that is appropriate for that particular course and group of pupils. The four basic types of instructions are : individual study, small-group instruction, laboratory work, and large-group instruction. Greater flexibility will be required to permit each of these important parts of instruction to take place within the framework of any class in the school.

Third, flexibility is necessary to permit teachers to work in the subjects, and parts thereof, where they are most prepared and talented, to use their talents at the highest levels of which they are capable, and to reserve less demanding aspects of the teaching function for those with more appropriate types and levels of training. This means applying to teaching the principle of division of labor which has invaded every other scientific field and has enabled us to increase so greatly the efficient use of the available trained scientific manpower. Flexibility far beyond that now typically practiced will be required lest we continue indefensible waste by requiring all teachers to perform all functions, with little regard for their talents and their experiences.

In the *fourth* instance, it is necessary to have increased flexibility in the manner of organizing and conducting our schools to enable groups of students whose abilities and talents are sufficiently different from other groups to follow programs of studies in a particular subject that are appropriate for them and that will enable them to obtain the maximum benefit possible from the study of that subject, and that will enable each one of them to achieve a better balanced education.

These are four requirements that must be met if our secondary educational system, which has been developed to serve all young persons in our society, is not to succumb to the evils of mass production, and if the talents of each person are to approach their potential. To surmount the obstacles before us will demand of all a vision, competence, and creative effort of the most demanding sort. Nothing less will suffice. But I am confident evidence of what is happening across the country today suggests that in this too, as in so many facets of American life, we shall not be found wanting.

Summary of the presentation made by R. H. WHITNALL

THERE are as many concepts of a flexible time schedule as there are different time schedules in practice. The eight or nine period schedule with periods of 40 minutes is probably one of the originators of flexible schedules since classes can meet five, seven, or ten times per week. Some schools have the entire day divided into 20-minute units and multiples of twenty minutes.

In the assessment of the flexible daily time schedule, I feel that too often administrators switch from one to another without considering and evaluating the fundamental concepts of time scheduling. Therefore, I wish to offer four fundamental concepts that should be kept in mind.

Concept Number One. A good schedule must provide and administer the kinds of learning experiences needed to implement the purposes for which the school exists.

1. Flexibility of a schedule helps meet the needs of the students in the electives offered and allows for experimentation.

2. The schedule must take care of the required subjects which for the most part cover citizenship rights and responsibilities, fundamental tools, health, social ideals, and attitudes.

3. The schedule should permit the types of instruction and activity program needed to achieve the objectives of the school.

4. The schedule must make possible the best educational program for each individual pupil, but must provide the best advantage to the greatest number of pupils.

Concept Number Two. A good schedule provides maximum use of all the human resources in the school.

1. Each teacher's assignment should be consistent with his training, talents, and interest.

2. It is important that the schedule load be within the teacher's physical and mental capacity, making it possible to relax.

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3. The schedule should, as far as possible, enable the administration and the guidance staff to perform their duties most effectively.

Concept Number Three. A good schedule provides for the maximum use of all the physical resources of the school.

1. The standard classrooms should be effectively and intelligently assigned and used to meet the physical setup in each room.

2. The schedule should make the maximum possible use of all the specialized units of the plant—band room, cafeteria, and others that normally are not in use every period. If this is done, the program can be enriched when the need arises by using this extra space.

3. Included in the physical resources of the school is the audio-visual equipment, and the schedule should make it possible to get the maximum use of these teaching aids.

4. With the bumper crop of students in the eighth grade now, we must keep in mind whether the flexible schedule will handle more or less students for the classrooms available.

Concept Number Four. A good schedule will facilitate an effective guidance program.

1. The most important first step is the right atmosphere which will condition a desire on the part of the students for guidance, making them receptive.

2. It will make guidance a gradual and continuous process within the schedule.

3. The schedule must respect subject choices of student, parent, and adviser.

The flexible time schedule is so complex that it is necessary for the high-school principal to have a punch card or electronic system to use to construct the daily time schedule of classes that fits the needs of his school best.

Summary of the presentation made by HOLMES WEBB

VARIOUS degrees of flexibility have been tried successfully in schools ranging from the small six-year school to the large three-year high school. As has been indicated by other speakers, there are numerous approaches used to achieve flexible schedules. Whether the schedule is a "floating period" type, the "modular," a "multiple period," or some other plan, does not seem to be an important problem if it meets the needs of the school using it. A greater problem in adopting the flexible schedule is the human factor.

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Before introduction of a flexible schedule, the possible effects of the change, positive and negative, on the people affected must be carefully considered; otherwise, the values expected may never be enjoyed. Such change may seem drastic and alarming to teachers in some schools. The feeling of security under old and familiar plans may not be given up easily by teachers. The principal will need to be aware of the customs and traditions peculiar to his school as he considers plans for change. He must work to secure the interest and cooperation of teachers in studying possible plans, realizing that change often is made "over the dead bodies of teachers." He will need their ideas as well as their enthusiasm. The cooperation of teachers in planning may enable the principal to foresee and make provision for some problems that might otherwise be overlooked. Values in established plans should not be lightly swept aside or violated by a principal bent on an idea. Shared faculty planning may prevent chaos, confusion, and consternation.

A few students in most secondary schools have the energy and ability to complete assignments or courses in a fraction of the time required by other members of their classes. Providing these students with work to challenge their ability can be exhilarating for students and teachers. Students may find the freedom in flexible schedules for individual work in laboratories for foreign language, science, typing, reading, music, and a dozen or more other areas. But the flexibility sought gives a complexity to planning that makes demands on principal, counselor, and teacher. Individual schedules of students must be planned carefully. Variations in schedules must be communicated clearly and in time to avoid costly frustrations. Variations in time allotments between major and minor subjects may leave an impression with students, teachers, and parents that some subjects are more worth while than others. Although this may be true, proving it could be an unhappy experience for both principal and teacher.

Extreme flexibility can result in lack of sufficient pattern and consequent educational loss. Ardent advocates of flexible schedules have asked, "Why shouldn't a girl in homemaking remain in the kitchen until her pie is cooked?" An obvious answer is that when she gets to English in the middle of a film of *Macbeth*, "her goose will be cooked." But flexible scheduling can be achieved happily by a faculty that studies the needs and possibilities in its school, that has clear communication and a co-operative approach to planning, that is realistic and excited about providing a better program for students.

HOW CAN WE MAKE THE BEST USE OF THE TIME AND ENERGIES OF THE GUIDANCE COUNSELORS WE NOW HAVE?

CHAIRMAN: *Thomas J. Jenkins*, Principal, Brandywine High School, Wilmington, Delaware

INTERROGATORS:

Joseph E. Barber, Head, School-College Relations Section, Bureau of Naval Personnel, Department of the Navy, Washington, D. C.

Mrs. Mary B. DuVal, Principal, Junior High School, Camden, South Carolina

Andrew E. Roper, Principal, High School, Middletown, Ohio

Summary of the presentation made by MACK J. SPEARS

SEVERAL assumptions seem implicit in the concern for making better utilization of the time and energies of the guidance counselors we now have. It might be pertinent to our discussion to mention at least three of them. *First*, we can assume that guidance counselors are important personnel in the secondary-school organization; *second*, we can assume that we have an insufficient number of counselors to provide adequately all of the counseling services needed by high-school youth; and, *third*, it seems reasonable to assume that, despite the shortage in the number of counselors, we can effect more efficient utilization of the time and energies of the counselors which we now have in our schools.

The guidance counselor as we now know him is a relative newcomer in the school organization. After guidance took some systematized form during the 1920's, we developed some concepts regarding the number of counselors needed to perform services based upon the ratio of five hundred (500) counselees to one counselor.

As secondary-school administrators became more sensitive to the needs of youth and as they became more aware of the importance of guidance in assisting young people in the quest to know themselves, to recognize their problems, to analyze their problems, and to select appropriate solutions to these problems, attention was focused upon the selection of personnel to serve as guidance counselors in proportion to the magic ratio. However, the lack of professionally trained counselors and insufficient funds have been major obstacles.

While it has been difficult to staff the schools with counselors in keeping with the originally established ratio of counselees to counselors, the problem became more acute when attention was focused upon a new ideal ratio with the publication of the Conant Report, *The American High School Today*. Conant recommends one counselor to every two

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hundred fifty to three hundred pupils. Certainly a reduction in the work load of a counselor should facilitate more effective results from the counseling process. However, one must not get the impression that effective counseling is purely a quantitative problem.

There can be little quarrel with the spirit of the Conant's recommendation, and, in the distant future, we may endeavor to increase the number of counseling personnel to approach the goal recommended. It seems that for the present we must concentrate upon another approach to the problem. We must attack the problem qualitatively. Our attention must become focused upon improving the quality of what we are now doing in counseling. We must in some way achieve better utilization of the time and energies of the guidance counselors we now have. The challenge is that of accomplishing this objective.

I doubt that there are any ready made answers to the problem which can be applied with equal effectiveness in every school or in every school system. We can make a few suggestions which may hold some merit in themselves, or which at least may stimulate the advancement of other ideas. The very nature of this topic suggests that it is the responsibility of the administrator to initiate procedures for better utilization of the time and energies of counselors. It is advisable to indicate that the extent of improvement will be in proportion to the administrator's acceptance of guidance as an integral part of the educational program, as well as his willingness to recognize the possibilities for effectuating improvement.

A second step which is essential for advancing the quality of the service rendered by counselors is that of influencing them to accept the concept of their role as one which requires the kind and degree of sophistication necessary to attract pupils to the counselors in the search for answers to the pupils' various problems. The time and energies of counselors can be greatly wasted unless they have an adequate perspective regarding their function.

Counselors should be professionally prepared both substantively and procedurally. Counselors must be equipped with a body of knowledge from which they can draw information requisitioned by pupils. At the same time, counselors must have the art for working with youth in a manner which engenders confidence and respect from the pupils and the other members of the staff. It is the responsibility of the administrator to see that the counselors have developed the skills which are so important in promoting desirable counselor-counselee relationships.

A continuing program of in-service education is invaluable for assisting counselors in discovering and refining means for making better use of their time and energies. The in-service education should be tailored to the needs of the individual school or to the needs of the specific school system. However, the program should include provisions for drawing upon the resources of the neighboring universities for professional assistance. Additionally, provisions should be made to develop familiarity with all other community resources, the knowledge of which would be essen-

dreamed and hoped and believed that to each of their children something richer and more rewarding might come. There have been societies, cultures, states, educational philosophies, and there still are where parents such as mine could not have so hoped, and dreamed, and believed. I thank a kind providence and the educational statesmanship of the past that my parents could hope and believe. Jefferson said it this way, "Let our only aristocracy be one of virtue and of value."

Under our American concepts, children from this tenant farmer couple could and did become doctors, college department head, dean of a great medical school, college president, farmer, happy housewives. This is a concept to protect, a heritage to perpetuate!

Max Lerner, speaking in Chicago last year, illustrated this point in this fashion. All societies are like great pyramids. The base is broad but it tapers gradually to a point, a pinnacle. Some educational concepts have fixed layers in their pyramids. Layers determined by wealth, or layers determined by birth, or layers determined by class or race. Once in any such layer, your ceiling is fixed. You are the victim of your position.

The American educational concept is different. We have the pyramid. This is inescapable and good. The difference in our pyramid is that we are determined there shall be no stratified layers. No matter what the level of birth, the Lincolns can come through and each and every person may raise as he is gifted and has will to perform.

This is the sacred something we guard and cherish. As school administrators you administer the functioning school. The pattern in which it is organized and by which it functions does much to determine the security and perpetuation of all this. When others may lose sight of this basic concept for a quick road anywhere, be it to a Sputnik or what have you, it is yours to caution, orient, and lead a safe course.

In this "Decade of Decision" this is your task. On this narrow front as our society attempts to penetrate the mist of the *uncertain, daring, new*, as I said in the beginning, it is yours to hold tenaciously to truth distilled from tested wisdom of the past. Progress we must have. Encouragement and leadership for every possible improvement in education we must give. But something fine and sacred transcends all this. That something must be guarded and cultured by the way we teach and what we teach. That something is the value our society has dared to place upon human dignity and each human personality.

I wish to close with a little poem credited to a fourth- or fifth-grade boy. He wrote—

I am I,
If I am not I
Who is I
I am me
And no one can keep me from being me,
For if they can I am kaput,
I'm washed up.

You smile and so did I when I first heard it. But listen again—

I am I,
If I am not I
Who is the Principal?
I am me
And no one can keep me from being me,
If they can, my educational leadership is kaput,
And I am washed up.

Second General Session

Saturday, February 27, 1:15 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Senior High-School and Junior College Section

Presiding: Samuel M. Graves, Principal, Gamaliel Bradford High School, Wellesley, Massachusetts; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Address:

THE MECHANIZATION OF TEACHING

EUGENE GALANTER

IN THE long night of prehistory, the instruction of the young must have presented many hazards. The poorly taught paid with their lives. The wheel seems to me to have come full circle. We may yet die for lack of wit; for, although the technology of teaching has expanded and each generation of children is better taught than the last, the fact is that the vast and tangled ramifications of human civilization have far out-paced the art of teaching. How has the technology of education grown? What are its landmarks? Can we make out some continuity, and perhaps project our thoughts into the future to see what can be done?

I see the dawn of systematic education giving rise to two forms of instruction. The first was a discourse to the young—a lecture—spoken or sung, but so arranged that the content could be memorized easily. The epic poets of pre-Socratic Greece taught by telling stories of right action and courage and so provided examples and precepts that their

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young audience could emulate. The development of the lecture method reached its highest sophistication in the hands of the Sophists. They distilled general principles of conduct that they taught to the young for a price. And they deserved the price, because they devoted a great deal of time to the organization of their lectures so that their students could more easily absorb the information. Plato, in discussing Protagoras, revealed his fear of the technical excellence of this great Sophist. Effective teaching has always frightened people. And the invention by the Sophists of the organized lecture was as much an advance over Homer and Hesiod as was the military phalanx over the mob.

Plato could not take lightly the advantages of the lecture method. Education could be supplied wholesale, and this made it possible to charge each student a small fee while making it worth while for the teacher. But there were disadvantages; somehow, children would forget the lecture, or they could be swayed by faulty arguments later in their lives, or they would discover that they did not, in fact, possess the skills that they presumed to possess. This is the kind of experience we all have when we listen to a brilliant mathematician explain how a particular kind of problem is solved. We feel that we understand it perfectly; then when we get home, we find ourselves incapable of solving a similar problem. Still, the lecture was valuable, and it gained in worth as improvements were introduced. A major technical improvement for the lecture was the invention of the test. This provided an opportunity for actual practice by the student, and gave the teacher information about concepts not thoroughly apprehended.

But the second form of instruction, the one that Plato advertised, the one that his teacher Socrates used, was a momentous breakthrough. This method, the dialectical or tutorial method, was quickly recognized as superior to the lecture. The students remembered a great deal more, they actually partook in the instructional process, and, by their own actions, they revealed what they did and did not know. The student, as Socrates said, taught himself. The tutor served the student as a question box, asking and probing for answers that would teach. A disadvantage, of course, is obvious—one student—one tutor. The cost is immense and it is clear why only the Greek aristocracy could afford it. But, even with the tutorial method, some savings were possible. Plato's Dialogues were written, and some could get transcriptions and so read for themselves.

The next big advance in educational technology was the incorporation of Hebrew emotionality into Christian thought. When the student loved, feared, or hated, the effectiveness of instruction increased. The addition of emotional side-effects can be construed rightly as an important advance in the instructional art. But Christianity added still another fillip—scholarship. If a person were able to get off alone to work on what he wanted to learn without interferences, he could extend

his intellectual comprehension in a most excellent and astonishing way.

But now comes the first machine for teaching—the printed book. This is the single most important advance in the state of the teaching art up to the present time. The last few centuries have seen no really new developments, except a more widespread employment of the existing facilities. Universal education has, in this country, indeed become universal. Recently, other teacher surrogates, like the motion pictures and television, have been making their appearance, but these are only refined imitations of the modern schoolroom.

In this blinding rush through the ages, it becomes clear that as education broadens its base, the lecture method becomes primary and the tutorial takes its place as a highly honored but overly expensive form of education for either the very rich or the handicapped.

I would like to tell you today about a renaissance in the method of dialectic teaching. It is the story of the "teaching machine," not a very pretty name, but a name that describes the new technology. It is the story of a mechanical device that can teach. I shall describe where it came from, what it is, what it has been shown able to do, and what it can do in the future. The tale begins in the psychologist's laboratory. One problem of the psychologist was to understand how an organism adapts its behavior to its environment; that is, how an organism learns to cope with its culture.

In order to study this question, we had to learn how to teach. Now, to study teaching, one needs young, docile organisms that can be exposed to a variety of situations so that one may discover how these experiences affect them. But the laboratory scientist could not get his hands on the appropriate animal, the child, and so he settled for the lower animals. He held the vague hope that what he learned about them might generalize to any animal, including man. Because he was dealing with lower animals, the psychologist cast about for methods of teaching that would work even on the mind of a brute beast. In the course of these studies that have extended over the past fifty years, a number of things were discovered.

First of all, the scientist found that he could not lecture to the animals because they did not understand his language. He could not tell them what to do. Even if he arranged for them to do something, there was no guarantee that the animal would repeat what it had done in the future. That became the crucial issue. If an animal would do something once, how could we be sure that, if this same problem was presented again, the animal would do what it had done before? The answer devolved on the empirical fact that, if some event occurred after the animal had done what you wanted to teach him and if that event were construed as something of value to the animal, then on future occasions it would again act in the way that had led to the valued outcome. It would continue to act in this way even without the consistent presenta-

tion of a valued outcome. That is, once the animal did something, and had been, let us call it "reinforced," for doing it, in the future it would behave in the same way with only occasional reinforcements.

Now the technique existed. By reinforcing what an animal had done, one could make it repeat the action. How many things could it learn in this way? It turned out that the animal could learn anything within its physical limits. New facts emerged quickly once this fundamental scheme had been developed. It was found that if too much time elapsed between the animal's behavior and the occurrence of the reinforcement, the effectiveness of the reinforcement was diminished. It was also found that each animal had to be dealt with individually; that is, the scientist was a tutor. Observe now the strong parallel between the psychologist training an animal to behave in such and such a way, and Socrates teaching Meno's slave to solve the Pythagorean theorem. Each time the slave came close to an appropriate remark, Socrates would say, "Yes, you are doing well." And each time the psychologist's animal approximated an appropriate action, the psychologist would drop a pellet of food into the animal's food cup. The parallel of the experimenter's technique and the tutorial is more than accidental. They are both doing the same things. They first elicit by one means or another the activity they want to teach, and then they reinforce the occurrence of the activity. The big trick, of course, is to elicit the kinds of complex actions that mark the educated person.

Scientists are fundamentally lazy people. If one tries to train a mouse to turn to the right in a maze or to press a button, one can stand there and reinforce it when it performs the desired action. This is Socrates' gambit. But it is a dull and thankless job. And therefore one thinks of how to automate the entire process. An arrangement is made so that, when the animal performs properly, it trips some kind of lever, and this lever actuates a device that delivers some reinforcement. Thus the psychologist can put his animal in the apparatus on Friday, have a pleasant weekend, and return on Monday to see an animal with a new repertoire of behavior. Clearly, the animal has been educated by the machinery.

It was an insight of Professor B. F. Skinner of Harvard University that, if he could mechanize the training of an animal as inherently imbecilic as a white rat, then the same thing should be possible with the infinitely superior child. In the way of great men, he suited his action to his thought, and devised a machine that would teach. In principle, the machine operates like a magical book. The book is endowed with very unusual properties. Specifically, the book is so arranged that the child is unable to turn the page until the book has satisfied itself that the child already knows what is on the page he has just finished reading. On turning the page, two things happen. First, and most important, the child is immediately reinforced with something

that he values. Second, the information on the next page is now available to him. The only problem is to make the book and find the reinforcer. This second problem, like many problems in technology, dissolved on contact. It was found that the very act of discovering that the page would turn is a potent reinforcer for learning what was on the preceding page. Added to this is the additional value that the child receives from being able to go ahead to the next item of information. That is to say, the successful solution of a problem is itself a powerful reward, and the discovery of new information enhances its reinforcing effect. The magical book and the child constitute a self-propelled device.

But what if the child makes a mistake or is confused? Suppose, in some way or other, the child's actions are not consonant to the demands made by the book. The results closely parallel what would happen in an animal experiment of the same kind. The child experiences punishment, followed by withdrawal and frustration or other signs of emotional upset. Having left the situation, he can no longer be taught. So a major necessity of the technique was some way of minimizing, if not entirely eliminating, the possibility of an error.

What causes an error? We have found that an error occurs whenever the new behavior that the child is required to emit is more than minutely different from the behavior that he has been required to emit before. That is, the child must be led by a series of infinitesimal steps from one behavioral repertoire to the next. This means that the contents of the book or, as we shall call it, of the teaching machine, must be carefully tailored to bring the child by small steps up through the material we want him to learn. This construction of a sequence of steps to amplify the child's initial behavior into an education constitutes what we call a "teaching machine program." This is the very heart of the entire concept.

A teaching machine program is the decomposition of some complex area of knowledge into a finely graded sequence of component knowledges that can be mastered piecemeal with no errors along the way. A program like this is a work of art, and the artisans in this educational vineyard are few and far between. To date there are no more than a handful of full-blown programs that profess any major segment of a subject matter. But work is progressing, and within the next few years we should see the existence of machine teaching programs in elementary, secondary, and college subjects.

In the elementary area the programs will probably be subjects like introductory arithmetic and number concepts, spelling, and certain segments of reading. I need not tell you that reading skill is fundamental to the machines and therefore the problem of designing an adequate reading program is itself of first importance. But the reading problem is extremely complicated. We shall have to remain satisfied with minor sorties into the areas of word recognition and vocabulary

building rather than an extensive program for the reading skill itself. At the secondary and college level, experimental programs have been and are being developed in a variety of substantive areas that include psychology, algebra, logic, and foreign language. When, and only when, thoroughly tested programs become available, will it be possible to extend them into the school systems. One of the great dangers in this entire field is the premature use of experimental materials that have not yet been thoroughly tested.

Now what exactly does that previous comment mean? Why shouldn't it be possible to use whatever programs we now have to help in the current emergency? The point is, as I have said before, that the student himself is the only one who can design the program. A program for machine teaching cannot be written out *a priori*; it must be constructed with the constant interaction of the learner and the program writer. The editor of a program is the student himself. If he has difficulties with the program material, there is something wrong with the program, not with the child. And this construction, as I am sure you can appreciate, takes time. Each segment of a machine program must be tried out and revised in the light of errors the children make, until eventually a program exists through which any child can proceed at his own pace with no errors.

There is another important feature of a teaching machine program. It implies a return to scholarship. The child, working with his own machine that contains a program at his own level, proceeds independently. There is no need for the current lock-step in the educational process. Each machine reacts to the child as a private tutor would, advancing him quickly when he knows the material, and moving as slowly as he wishes when the child must struggle with the ideas.

The machine has other advantages. It is just, rewarding only when the child is right. It is emotionally neutral, never scolding or getting angry at the child who is having difficulty. It is imperturbable and benign. It is wise (if the programmer is wise), and, though it speaks softly, its accumulated knowledge is unlimited. Whenever someone hears these qualities stated without knowing that the possessor is a machine, they often remark, "They are the ideal attributes of a good teacher."

But, someone will say, what of the cost? How can we possibly afford what must obviously be a complicated device for each and every child in the school system? Well, what of the cost? The machines themselves are fundamentally irrelevant to the program material. Any type of machine that presents the program and provides an opportunity for the child to answer back is adequate. Such machines can be built for less than \$50, and it hardly need be said that the machines will not use all the time of the child. My own view in this matter is that in the beginning, when program material is scarce, teaching machines will use no

more than one fifth of the child's time, and, as programs increase, the total amount of the child's time that is spent with the teaching machine will amount to about one third. This means that one machine is needed for every three to five children.

The cost of the program material is something else again. In one estimate that I made recently, I calculated that the production of the manuscript for a single program for one semester of elementary arithmetic would amount to about \$50,000.

The advantages of teaching machines have so far been implicit in what I have had to say. In general, the teaching machine has all of the advantages of the private tutor. In addition, there is an increase in the over-all time efficiency of the learning process that, in the studies so far available, suggest a factor of about three to one. That is to say, we should be able to cover three times the current material. The other major advantage is that the teaching machine frees the teacher for those creative and uniquely human tasks that only the teacher can perform. Thus, the drudgery of drill, the manipulation of flash cards, the grading of homework exercises, the incessant repetition during recitation, all become things of the past for the teacher. The child comes to the teacher with a fund of knowledge that can be discussed and amplified without the need for the teacher first to impart the skill. Large issues and values will find time in the curriculum without threatening to make the student incompetent in the basic skills. The incredible dilemma of the modern teacher who is required simultaneously to train the child and to broaden his scope through living experiences and human interactions is undercut in one stroke.

A rash of questions of course remain unanswered. What of the dull child? What of the bright child? What of the stereotyped nature of the learning? Won't all of the children turn into a long, long line of robots? None of these questions can be answered. We have no information yet. But we can certainly conjecture. In my own experiences, the bright and the dull children seem to have little difficulty with the same program. The bright children take about one third as long to get through the program material as the dull, which gives them time for additional work. Both the bright and the dull are able to solve the problems the program was designed to teach. But the bright, it seems to me, are able to generalize further from what they have learned, and therefore maintain their superiority over the dull. The program does not turn them both into mediocre students. In general, it appears that the dull child advances more than the bright, and so the absolute distribution of the class moves upward, and the variation in the distribution becomes smaller. Although I have heard stories that this is the case, I have never seen any of the bright children bored by any teaching machine programs. It just seems to be a fact that you don't get bored when you are continuously being successful. The children main-

tain their own independence after having been through a program. They apply what they have learned in the variety of ways that we would expect as a result of the variety of interests and personalities that the child brings to the situation. The only effect that the teaching machines seem to have on the children is to enlarge their vision. In addition, the machines have the advantage of returning to the child the opportunity for private and independent study—a feature that is rapidly disappearing from educational systems. The child is given an opportunity to work independently and in this way to recognize the fruits of his own labors without the necessity for constant and potentially invidious comparisons between him and his fellow students. What the long-range social consequences of this change will be is hard to anticipate, but by no stretch of the imagination can I construe it as having bad effects.

A teaching machine makes the recognition of talent simple and obvious. The child who races through the available programmed materials and waits hungrily for new information is revealed to you very quickly.

The limitations of machine teaching have not yet been revealed to us. We have only scratched the surface, and the potentialities of the machines seem unlimited. This optimism is, I am sure, a transient matter. We are bound to run into snags, snares, and pitfalls. But at the moment, these are hard to anticipate. When they occur, we shall have to face them and revise what we are doing. But presently, the major limitation seems to be one of program material.

Writing a program is quite an interesting experience. It forces us to reconsider all of the time worn topics of curriculum structure and skill sequencing. Every teacher of mathematics or arithmetic is convinced that he or she knows the correct order in which arithmetical ideas should be presented, but it turns out, of course, that only the child really knows. And, with a teaching machine program, the child is the one who selects the appropriate order in which material is to be presented. Questions like, "When is the appropriate time to introduce negative numbers?" are no longer relevant. If the arithmetic program has taught the child addition and the commutativity operation on addition, then when the child learns subtraction and generalizes commutativity to subtraction, the necessity for the negative numbers arises. The program itself, as it interacts with the child, dictates the form that the sequence of operations must take. To teach the child that he must always subtract the smaller from the larger number may be an appropriate scheme for the human teacher who must keep under control the myriad of possibilities that present themselves to the child, but the teaching machine can introduce the negative number concept at just that point when negative numbers make sense. The same kind of issue comes up in measurement. When should a child be taught the ideas of

measurement? Again, people argue this point *ad nauseum*, with no light but much heat. The construction of a teaching machine program in arithmetic imposes upon the programmer the necessity for introducing measurement ideas when the child has reached the point where his own development makes the demand.

Just as the problem of sequencing within a particular subject matter becomes an empirical issue with machine teaching, so the problem of curriculum development and curriculum structure becomes an empirical question in the same context. How these side effects of teaching machines will act on the educational system remains to be seen. But act they will. And we must be prepared not for the introduction of a new device into the educational field, but for the introduction of a totally new method of educating.

Whatever its drawbacks, and there must be many, this method is one step toward assuring our children that they will be prepared to survive in the severe competition of tomorrow. The power of education and training have brought about the scientific revolution in which we find ourselves—only a superior form of training will prevent us, collectively, from foundering into another long night.

Film Premiere:

NEW DIRECTIONS TO QUALITY EDUCATION—THE
SECONDARY SCHOOL TOMORROW

Produced by: The National Association of Secondary-School Principals' Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School

Presentation of the Films: Lloyd S. Michael, Principal, Evanston Township High School, Evanston, Illinois; Chairman of Commission

Suggestions for Use of the Films and Guide: J. Lloyd Trump, Associate Secretary, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, and Director of the Commission.

Third General Session

Saturday, February 27, 3:15 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Junior High-School Section

Presiding: John M. Sexton, Principal, Northeast High School, St. Petersburg, Florida; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Address:

SOME PROBLEMS OF THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

JAMES B. CONANT

MAY I first of all take a few minutes of your time to explain the purpose of my study? To do so, I shall have to say a word first about the origin of my plan to travel around the country and visit senior high schools. A little more than three years ago when I returned to the United States after four years in Germany, I decided I should like to be better informed about the realities of American public schools. This was ten months before Sputnik, please remember. What I had in mind to do was to make firsthand observations of some good comprehensive high schools in different parts of the United States. On the basis of what I heard and saw, I felt I would be in a better position to write and talk about American public schools than had previously been the case. Though as a member of the Educational Policies Commission I had learned a good deal about some of the problems facing public school administrators, I knew that there was a great deal of misunderstanding among laymen, and I hoped that I might be able to do something to reduce this misunderstanding. To that end, a report of my study would be addressed to laymen—citizens concerned with public schools, and especially school board members.

A year ago, I published a first report and spent some time explaining it to groups of citizens in many states. The report dealt with the widely comprehensive high school, and I considered the curriculum grades 9 to 12 irrespective of whether a system was organized on an 8-4, 6-3-3, or some other basis. In the schools I visited, almost without exception, it was in grade 9 that a pupil for the first time had any choice of a program. Two choices were particularly important: first, algebra or

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general mathematics, and second, the decision whether to start a foreign language. As soon as I started talking about my report around the country, I heard that some schools were starting to move algebra into the eighth grade (at least for the more able students), and a modern foreign language was being introduced into the junior high school or even the elementary school. These changes were particularly apparent in some of the large cities and the more wealthy suburbs surrounding the cities. (Since in these communities the comprehensive high school usually did not have Smith-Hughes vocational programs, they were not of the widely comprehensive type I had been studying.) It was clear that, before I wrote my final report on American public high schools, I had to have a look in more detail as to what was the situation in grades 7 and 8. Therefore, this year with the assistance of Professor Matthew P. Gaffney of Harvard (for many years principal of the New Trier Township High School in Winnetka, Illinois), Franklyn O. White (on leave from Central Junior High School of Greenwich, Connecticut), and E. Alden Dunham of last year's staff, I have been studying these grades in the many kinds of arrangements that can be found.

I am glad to have this opportunity of reporting what we have found and our tentative conclusions to this audience composed of people who really know about the junior high school. Your reactions will be of the utmost value in shaping my final report, which, I may remind you, will be addressed to laymen. What I hope to do is to explain to citizens, including school board members, what are the major problems to be found in providing instruction in grades 7, 8, and 9 and in organizing a school system so that the work of these grades is properly connected with both the elementary school and the senior high school.

So far this year, my staff and I between us have visited about 125 schools in some 60 communities in 17 states. Many of these visits were made as a result of interesting practices noted in 300 questionnaires received from junior high schools which were recommended to use in 200 communities in 30 states. Travel convenience determined these visits as well. I personally have sampled opinion by talking to administrators, teachers, and pupils in a variety of schools. We have included, in addition to junior high schools, elementary and senior high schools in high-income suburban areas and in the large cities—thus covering a wider range of schools than in the case of my study two years ago.

Now to what we have so far found. First, as you all would know, we found a variety of organization—6-3-3, 8-4, 6-6, 5-3-4, 6-2-4, and even 7-1-4. I understand there are junior high-school grades 7-10, but we have not seen any. Diversity with respect to both the place and program of grades 7 and 8 is the first rather obvious fact I have to report. These grades are often found as the first years of a separate junior high school and then, again, as the last years of an elementary school. Sometimes they comprise a junior high school in themselves, and sometimes they are the

first two grades of a six-year high school. The only trend that most people seem to agree about is that an increasing percentage of adolescent youth are commencing secondary school, not in the 9th grade as in the traditional 8-4 system, but at least by the 7th grade. Indeed, in large eight-year elementary schools, grades 7 and 8 are often treated as a unit separate from the first six years. Though I would agree with the many educators who feel that these organizational matters are secondary to what goes on in the classroom, I shall come back again to this problem of organization, because enrollments, in particular, do seem to have a bearing on the instructional program. Therefore, before a profitable discussion of organization can take place, one must talk about the curriculum itself.

A junior high-school observer recently wrote an article entitled "The Dynamic Eighth Grade." It does seem to be true that in many schools the program and practices are as much in flux as the grade organization itself. It is noteworthy that our questionnaires indicate that many of the practices I shall mention are not more than two or three years old. Bear in mind, however, that the schools which we visited and those from which we received questionnaires were by no means picked on a scientific random sampling basis. Therefore, I shall only indicate the extent of the variety of practices and try to avoid possible misleading generalizations.

I have been very interested in the extent to which algebra and foreign languages have been introduced at least by grade 8. Many schools on the East Coast offer algebra in grade 8, and we know of schools in the Middle West and on the West Coast that do likewise. On the other hand, we know of several schools on the West Coast that offer foreign languages at least by grade 8, a considerable number of schools on the East Coast, and a few schools in the Middle West. Most often the enrollment in these classes is determined not by election solely, rather by a combination of selection-election. That is, roughly 15-20 per cent of the grade might be selected for an eighth-grade algebra class, and these students would then have the choice either to take the course or not.

There is likewise considerable ferment in the science area. In the past, science in some schools was not considered important enough to warrant daily instruction in grades 7-9. The science that was given in these grades was usually general science. Now we know of many schools that have recently changed their program, increased requirements, and offered a more specialized course, either biology or some form of physical science, in the ninth grade for bright students. A very promising development is the articulation of the whole program grades 1-12 in some school systems.

We have found ability grouping very widespread, and, in the schools we have visited and from which we have questionnaires, heterogeneously grouped classes in academic areas are the exception, not the rule. Block-time, especially in grade 7, is very popular in many of these schools, though there seems to be very little breakdown of subject matter lines.

On the whole, we have noted a retreat from the core concept toward a structured program, even in those parts of the country known for their core programs. The reason given is generally the same—lack of qualified teachers. I shall have more to say about this on Wednesday in my address to the whole convention.

Largely, though not completely, as a result of our inquiries into the large cities, we have been struck with the severity of the reading problem in some schools. There are schools in the United States where 40 per cent of the pupils in the ninth grade are reading at the sixth-grade level or below. Ordinarily, there is much more involved than a pedagogic problem, but we have been impressed with the efforts being made in some schools and some school systems to meet the situation.

We have found considerable variation in the number of periods in the school day with the split about even between those schools with six or fewer periods and those with seven or more. Many schools have a school day as long as 7 hours, while others are as short as 5 hours. Most are between $6\frac{1}{2}$ and 7 hours.

I should note that guidance procedures differ considerably from one school to another. Many schools use full-time guidance personnel, whereas others use teachers and often the assistant principal on a part-time basis. Sometimes both full-time and part-time personnel are used.

Homework seems to vary considerably as well. We have not run into a single school that disapproves of all homework. Some encourage it but have no set policies, while others spell out policy in detail. Most common is one hour for grade 7, from an hour to $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours for grade 8, and two hours for grade 9. In regard to reporting pupil progress, many schools use a combination of grade standards and individual standards. Seldom are pupils retained more than two years in any one of the first eight years.

A final observation has to do with the school and the home. We have been considerably impressed and depressed by the degree to which the home determines what goes on in the school. It is nonsense to say the school has taken over the function of the home. All one needs to do is visit a low-income district of a large city, then a high-income suburban district to see the entirely separate problems with which the home confronts the school.

I have been talking about a few of my findings. What follows is a list of some 18 points which represent my present tentative convictions which, of course, are subject to change. These are the points I would make at this time if I were presenting my final report to citizens interested in public education. I shall look forward to the reactions of the panel.

1. My first conclusion is that I do think grades 7 and 8 are extremely important from at least two points of view which are closely allied. *First*, it is in these grades that pupils are in the transitional stage of early adolescence; most are neither children nor adults. The early adolescent period, as I need not remind you gentlemen, is indeed a very special one

—physically, emotionally, and mentally. *Second*, these grades are transitional, also, in the sense that the essentially child-centered curriculum of the elementary school meets the subject-centered curriculum of the high school and the university. I shall develop at length in my talk on Wednesday before the convention some implications of this fact. Because of the importance of grades 7 and 8, then, I do not have to tell this audience of the need for properly trained junior high-school teachers. Neither the elementary-school teacher nor the senior high-school teacher is usually well adapted to give instruction in grades 7 and 8. This is a problem for state certification agencies and teacher training institutions.

2. Though I am fully aware of the concepts of general education and exploration in grades 7 and 8, I have become convinced that grade 8 should be fully departmentalized. That is, children should be exposed to different teachers for different subjects, and teachers rarely should be assigned outside their particular area of special competence. I should assume that by the eighth grade the delicate balance between the child-centered curriculum and the subject-centered curriculum is shifting to the subject matter tradition of the high school and university.

3. However, I am inclined to the view of those who feel that the seventh grade should be considered as transitional between the self-contained class of grades 1-6 and the departmentalized situation in grade 8. Provided competent and enthusiastic teachers are available, I should advocate some block-time in grade 7. English and social studies are often combined in a two-period block with the same teacher, who also often has home-room and guidance responsibilities for the same children.

4. In grade 8, or in grades 7 and 8, I believe the following subjects should be required of *all* pupils: English, social studies, mathematics, science, art, music, physical education, industrial arts for boys, and home economics for girls. In the schools we have visited and in those from which we have received questionnaires, the scheduling of these courses has varied considerably. I am aware of the preference of some junior high-school people for the 6-period day with long periods for supervised study, but I should prefer more flexibility than afforded by the 6-period day. For this reason, I should advocate a 7-period day or, in any case, a longer school day with more flexibility than some schools have at present.

The following program is illustrative of the flexibility I think is needed. It calls for a 7-period day with each period 50 minutes in length, a 30-minute lunch period, and another 33 minutes which would include a 15-minute home-room period and 18 minutes for passing time. This calls for a total school day of 6 hours and 53 minutes, or a school day from 8:30 a.m. to 3:23 p.m. This is a long day, but many schools are in session for this long a time. (Of course, if the periods were shortened to 45 minutes, this would cut 35 minutes from the total length of the day.) Remember that this is an illustrative program only.

Weekly Program 7 and 8 (required of all)

5	English	}	Possibly block-time in grade 7
5	Social Studies		
5	Mathematics (Algebra for some in grade 8)		
5	Science		
5	Physical Education		
2	Fine Arts (Art and/or Music)		
2	{ Industrial Arts (boys) (1 double period) Home Economics (girls) (1 double period)		
2			
	Activity periods (assembly, orchestra, clubs, student council, etc.)		
<hr/>			
31	Total required periods per week		
4	Optional periods		
<hr/>			
35	Total periods a week		

The four optional periods a week would be used to meet individual needs and interests in foreign language and any required subject in which additional work seems advisable. In other words, these periods are for both remedial and enrichment purposes. For example, one kind of student may take 4 periods of foreign language; another student, 4 periods of reading instruction; another student, extra periods in mathematics; and still another student, extra periods in industrial arts or art and music. Note that industrial arts and home economics are scheduled for one double period a week in grades 7 and 8. If two double periods are scheduled in grade 8, more time could be devoted to art and music in grade 7.

There are a few more points I should note about this program. First, I gather that relatively few schools schedule physical education every day. From what I have heard, drastic revisions of the physical education program may be in order in many schools before the ideal of 5 periods a week can be achieved. Five days of a poor program is no better than two or three days. The 6-period day will stand in the way of physical education every day, and it will stand in the way of the introduction of foreign languages in grades 7 and 8. I shall come back to the matter of foreign language and algebra but will point out that, if some students begin a foreign language earlier than grade 9, something in the program must give way in a fully scheduled 6-period day—generally fine or industrial arts. The same problem does not pertain to the earlier introduction of algebra because all students take mathematics anyway. Lastly, note that science is a full-time subject in this program. We find increasingly more attention paid to science in these grades than in the past.

5. In the ninth grade, I assume the curriculum will provide for the introduction of the usual sequential elective programs as well as the continuation of the required courses in general education. I assume that

many students will keep up their interest in art, music, and industrial arts, while others will elect foreign languages and algebra instead of general mathematics. I think personal typing might well be a subject appropriate to the junior high-school grades. I suspect the 6-period day is responsible for what seems to me a bad choice in some schools in grade 9; namely, the choice between science and foreign language.

6. From what we have seen and heard, my tentative conviction is that in the fully departmentalized eighth grade there should be ability grouping, preferably subject by subject in the areas of English, social studies, mathematics, and science. As with the senior high school, I should envision three groups, the bulk of the students in a large middle group. I am not impressed with grouping that commences with the assumption that all the band members must be scheduled together across-the-board so they can practice together.

7. My reasons for advocating ability grouping stem equally from concern about the very bright student and the very slow reader. As you are all so well aware, the reading ability spread among junior high-school pupils is extremely great. Some pupils physically are young adults, others are children; and some pupils read like adults, others like children. I have found increasing interest in the reading competence of students in the junior high schools and a tendency to introduce remedial and developmental reading which is in addition to the regular English class. The use of reading level tests as one of the major criteria for placing students in different groups seems to be on the increase. I venture to think such tests are preferable to I.Q. tests since they seem more relevant and are easier for the general public to understand. I cannot stress enough the increasing interest, especially in the large cities, in the whole reading problem. The teaching of reading has ceased to be an elementary-school problem; it now is a function of the schools at all levels.

8. I would assume, then, that there should be full-time guidance personnel to direct the testing program, to coordinate it with the guidance program, and to plan and provide for the implementation of all guidance—educational, personal, or group. These guidance officers, with aid from the senior high school, often help junior high-school pupils make decisions about their senior high-school programs—thus insuring continuity. In grade 7 the block-time teacher has special responsibilities in guidance.

9. Among the new trends I mentioned earlier was the early identification of at least the highly gifted and the provision of an accelerated program in some areas for them. These students, having finished eighth-grade arithmetic at the end of the seventh grade, may start algebra (or a course in one of the new brands of mathematics) in grade 8. This procedure seems to me a most promising development, but opinion has not yet crystallized as to how large a percentage of the school should be included in the group, nor to how this group should be formed. Does the student elect the course, or is he selected for it? There are many

problems in this area. If as many as 20 per cent of the eighth grade start algebra in that grade, by no means all of them will be taking the most advanced mathematics courses in the senior year. But this procedure should lead some pupils in the twelfth grade to a considerable amount of study in courses of college caliber. Coupled with the Advanced Placement Program, this earlier identification means a highly gifted youth could finish college in 3 years instead of 4. This shortening of the formal education period is important for those who are going on for study in medicine, law, arts and sciences. Such a program is suitable only for the very able, and there may be a danger in a few schools that some with insufficient ability will be guided into the Advanced Placement Program. There is also the problem of articulation in grades 7-12.

An acceleration of the science program with the introduction of biology or a special physical science course in grade 9 for bright students is equally promising but brings up the same kind of problems. Will the same students who take algebra in grade 8 also take biology in grade 9? Do the students elect the course or will they be selected for it? What happens in grade 12?

One of the most interesting developments in recent years is the introduction into both the elementary and junior high schools of what I call the "American approach" to the teaching of a modern foreign language. I call it "American" because the hearing-speaking introduction to the language is quite different from the traditional or European method which starts with translation and the memorization of vocabulary. In either case, of course, the goal is mastery. On Wednesday I shall spend considerable time discussing the new approach, for there are serious implications for the whole school system. Very quickly, my conclusion is that *only* if a community has the funds, public opinion so desires, and really qualified teachers can be obtained should instruction start in grade 3; otherwise, it should start in grades 7 and 8 for those pupils who can profit from it. I would assume that most pupils would still begin in grade 9. The two major problems that must be faced are those mentioned in connection with mathematics and science; namely, identification of the students and articulation of the program for grades 7-12, or grades 3-12.

10. The whole matter of articulation is something about which the superintendents and principals at all levels should be very much concerned, and the problem will increase as more attention is paid to individual needs and as earlier differentiation takes place. In every school system there should be a carefully worked out program for grades 1-12 in all areas. I gather some subject areas are organized sequentially, while others may be analogous to a spiral, covering in successive years basically the same concepts at more sophisticated levels. Whatever the approach to content, careful planning is necessary whether the area is foreign languages, science, or social studies. For example, I suspect a lack of articulation between American history as often presented in the eighth

grade and American history as given in the senior high school. There is usually much thought and attention given to social articulation of children moving from one school to another, but I gather that often there is far less academic articulation. I would guess that an increasing problem of the separate junior high school will be the matter of academic articulation, whereas I would guess that a major problem of the six-year high school is a proper concern for the social development of young adolescents.

11. While on the subject of social studies, I must say that, though I deliberately shy away from matters of content, I do find that teachers and administrators alike are seeking more emphasis on geography in grades 7 and 8. Likewise, there is more attention being paid to English composition in grades 7 and 8. Students in these grades spend a considerable portion of their time in English classes developing skill in writing varieties of sentences, paragraphs, and even short essays.

12. I have become more impressed than ever with the important place of the library in the operation of the schools I have seen. All schools, to my mind, should have a fully qualified librarian who runs a well-stocked central library easily accessible to students. Teachers often bring their classes into the library for entire periods. Classroom libraries are effectively utilized.

13. Having spoken at length about pedagogic matters, I should stress the importance of activities and facilities that promote the social as well as the academic development of children in grades 7 and 8. Dramatics, musical activities in the form of choruses and orchestras, intra-mural athletics, dances—these have their place in the transitional years of grades 7 and 8. A gymnasium and an auditorium become necessities. And clearly these students are at an age when a certain amount of self-government through the home-room organization and a student council begins to have meaning in the development of an understanding of democracy. I have noted a tendency in some schools to restrict the number of activities and clubs to those in which there is genuine interest and to tie in the clubs especially with regular classroom work. The result is really an extra period of science or music, for example.

14. I believe in these activities so long as they have educational value but not when the pupils are exploited to make a field day for the public or to build up the reputation of a coach. I am sorry to report, for example, that in many localities the community interest in football and basketball has been almost a determining factor in the placement of the ninth grade in the school organization. I had not been aware that interscholastic rivalry involved the junior high school, as well as the senior high school. I offer my sympathy to you principals if community pressures in this regard operate in your schools. I have already mentioned my skepticism of grouping and scheduling based on band membership, and I deplore the substitution of band for physical education. I know that in some communities those activities based on competitive athletics and public performance have gone much too far.

15. Though it is true that these seventh- and eighth-grade pupils have a long and full school day, many schools indicate that from 1 to 2 hours of homework per night is expected of these young adolescents. It would appear that some teachers at the senior and junior high-school levels since Sputnik have been pressured into more homework without thought given to its quality. It is not for me to tell you professionals that drudgery is hardly a guarantee of learning. Nonetheless, I do see a place for meaningful homework which is preceded in the classroom by a careful explanation of what is to be done. A progression from one hour per day in grade 7 to two hours by grade 9 seems not excessive. What is the reaction of the panel members?

16. Homework suggests marking and policies in regard to promotion. You may recall in my first report I made a distinction between required and elective courses. My recommendation was that, in the senior high school, pupils should be marked in accordance with their effort and ability in the required courses, but that strict standards should be maintained in elective courses. I would maintain these same high standards in any elective courses at the junior high-school level. However, the nature of the problem is different in the required courses in the elementary and junior high schools. In grades 1-8 there is the necessity to develop certain basic skills. It may take some pupils longer to develop these skills than others. This fact implies that standards other than effort and ability do enter the picture in required courses in skill areas below the senior high-school level. In our present graded structure, this fact also implies that some students may be retained, though certainly, I should think, for no more than two years. I think the non-graded primary is a promising development, and it does have special bearing upon the early acquisition of the basic skills.

17. I am now going back to the matter of organization which at the outset I indicated could not be profitably discussed without first considering the curriculum. Often, of course, such factors as existing building facilities will determine whether a system is organized in a certain way—6-3-3, 6-6, 8-4, and so on. I have heard, too, that state laws, including aid formulas, may influence the decision one way or the other.

My own conclusion, as a result of talking with a number of teachers and school administrators, is that there is no overwhelming evidence whether grade 9 belongs with grade 10 in a senior high school or with grade 8 in a junior high school. I should be interested in the reactions of the panel members to my explanation for this lack of consensus among professional educators. Clearly, no ninth grade is homogeneous with respect to the maturity of the pupils—the ages alone cover a two-year span, and boys and girls of the same age mature at different times. Therefore, it would seem that some boys and perhaps many girls would fare better in terms of this "social" argument (using the term in its widest sense) if the break between junior and senior high schools were between the eighth and ninth grades; others might fare better if the break were

between the ninth and tenth grades. It might be argued that purely pedagogic considerations point toward including grade 9 with the senior high school, since the elective program traditionally begins in grade 9, as does promotion by subject. Does one promote a boy to grade 10 of the senior high-school who fails a required course in grade 9 of the junior high school? In any case, it is my guess that both pedagogic and social factors must be weighed together. I know of two similar communities which recently arrived at opposite conclusions about the place of grade 9.

While I can find no overriding consideration to settle a controversy between the merits of a three-year and a four-year senior high school, I did hear many arguments in favor of an organization which provides an eighth grade of at least 125-150 pupils—an enrollment one usually does not find in the 8-year elementary school. (And if you accept the conclusion of my first report that the 12th grade should have at least 100 pupils, the total enrollment in the ninth grade, however distributed among junior high schools, must be at least 125 pupils because of the inevitable dropouts.) At least 125-150 pupils will be needed in the eighth grade if one is to departmentalize satisfactorily, group satisfactorily, and offer a broad program that will include industrial arts and home economics. A three-year separate junior high school would then enroll about 450 pupils. This I would certainly consider a minimum figure for a separate junior high school because of the expense of the program. In order to utilize teaching specialists economically and expensive facilities as well—library, shops, gymnasium, auditorium, and so on—an even larger enrollment may be preferable. For highly efficient operation, my guess is that something like 600 to 800 students are needed in a separate junior high school.

Two illustrations will show why. With 750 in a school, there will be 250 in a grade, or 125 boys per grade. If industrial arts is required either twice a week in grades 7 and 8 or four times a week in grade 8, and if there are about 20 boys per class, there will be either 12 classes meeting twice a week or six classes meeting four times a week. In any case, the industrial arts teacher will be teaching 24 periods a week. Add a few for electives in grade 9 and one has an economical use of a specialist teacher. The only way to use that teacher full-time with a smaller enrollment is to cut class size or increase the requirement in industrial arts. The same reasoning holds for any subject in which boys and girls are separated.

As a second illustration, unless one has a large enrollment in grade 8, the temptation will be either to include too many students in accelerated eighth-grade algebra and foreign languages or not to offer these courses at all because the classes would be too small.

Actually, the logic of the arguments I have presented, especially in regard to departmentalization in grade 8, points to a 7-5 system with grade 8 enrolling 125-150 pupils as a minimum. The elementary schools could be located widely throughout the district and need contain no more pupils per grade than those accommodated in a single class, provided one

were willing to postpone departmentalization and the offering of industrial arts and home economics until grade 8. (Interestingly, the State of Virginia now bases its high-school graduation requirements on a five-year program. In 1952, 58 per cent of Virginia's secondary schools were six-year high schools.) Of course, in many traditional 8-4 systems, the enrollment in grades 7 and 8 is so small that few, if any, of the facilities and offerings I have spoken of can be provided except at considerable expense. In densely populated communities, grade 8 in such schools may be of sufficient size to yield 150 pupils or more. But the question remains as to whether the social needs of the adolescent are met by such a situation or whether, in the elementary school, special provision should be made for treating grades 7 and 8 as a unit.

I shall mention only one more system; namely, the 6-6 which is prevalent in many parts of the United States, particularly in rural areas. In 1952 there were two and one-half times as many six-year high schools as there were separate junior high schools, though the average enrollment of the junior high schools was 50 per cent higher than that of the six-year schools. It could be argued that a newly reorganized district might well consider organizing on a 6-6 basis especially with a very small enrollment in grades 7 and 8. There are at least four advantages to such a set-up. *First*, the overhead and cost of the building is spread over more pupils. *Second*, grouping, departmentalization, and special classes for bright pupils are more likely to be possible than if the pupils in grades 7 and 8 are spread among several elementary schools. *Third*, the pupils in the junior high-school grades can share the special facilities and specialized teachers with the senior high-school pupils. And *fourth*, articulation of the whole program 7-12 is facilitated by this arrangement. Of course, there are important arguments against the six-year school. One is the cost of bussing more pupils in rural areas. The second is the problem of mixing seventh-grade pupils with twelfth-grade pupils in the same school. Though some of the pedagogic arguments may be good for the six-year school, the social arguments are not, and principals of these schools should make certain that sufficient attention is paid to the younger students. Furthermore, there is the necessity to see to it that the poorer teachers are not relegated to the lower grades.

18. Last but not least, if I were addressing citizens, I would stress the importance of the principal. I have been more impressed than ever this year with the leadership role of the principal. Time and again we have found that good schools invariably mean strong leadership.

So I close by acknowledging the vital importance of the job you gentlemen are doing in the education of our future citizens at this crucial stage of their development, and by wishing you all success in the years ahead.

Discussion and Comments:

Will French, Emeritus Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Executive Editor, Study of Behavioral Outcomes of General Education in High School
Ellis A. Jarvis, Superintendent of Schools, Los Angeles, California
Bettina King, Principal, Meadowbrook Junior High School, Newton Centre, Massachusetts

Films: Second showing of NEW DIRECTIONS TO QUALITY EDUCATION—THE SECONDARY SCHOOL TOMORROW

Annual Banquet

Saturday, February 27, 7:00 P.M.

BALLROOM, SHERATON HOTEL

IN HONOR OF DR. PAUL E. ELICKER

Presiding: *Cliff Robinson*, Director of Secondary Education, Eugene Public Schools, Eugene, Oregon; President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Toastmaster: *Howard F. Horner*, Principal, David Douglas High School, Portland, Oregon

Invocation: *The Reverend Paul S. Wright*, Minister, First Presbyterian Church, Portland, Oregon

Music: The Velvetones, Franklin High School, Portland, Oregon; *Mrs. Jo Anne Veatch*, Director; *Kenneth A. Erickson*, Principal

Three foreign educators from Ceylon were guests of honor at the Convention and were introduced. Each spoke briefly of their work in Ceylon and of their visit to America as participants in the Technical Assistance Program of the U.S. Government.

Presentation of Award:

GEORGE SHATTUCK

THANK you, Mr. President. Members of NASSP and guests. When your executive committee appointed me chairman of a committee to pay tribute to our retired executive secretary, Paul Elicker, I accepted the assignment with mixed emotions. I was distressed at the prospect of the retirement of the man who did so much for us; at the same time, I was delighted that the committee, in its perspicacity chose me to speak for NASSP tonight, although I must say that I am not unmindful of the



John M. Sexton (left), Principal of Northeast High School, St. Petersburg, Florida, and Member of the NASSP Executive Committee, and Dr. James B. Conant, Director of a study of the American high school, pose for a picture during the Junior High School General Session Meeting.—*Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee*



Dr. Will French (left), Emeritus Professor of Education, Teachers College, Columbia University, New York, New York; Bettina King, Principal of Meadowbrook Junior High School, Newton Centre, Massachusetts; and Ellis A. Jarvis, Los Angeles Superintendent of Schools, make comments and lead the discussion following Dr. Conant's address before the Junior High School General Session.—*Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee*



George E. Shattuck, Principal of the Norwich Free Academy, Norwich, Connecticut, presents a plaque to Paul E. Elicker during the annual banquet given in honor of Dr. Paul E. Elicker, who retired as Executive Secretary of NASSP, December 31, 1959. —Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee



Things That Seldom Happen

Kay Tamesa, Administrative Assistant, wields one of the two huge myrtle-wood gavels made by students of the Benson Polytechnic High School (Leon P. Minear, Principal) and presented to the NASSP Convention.—Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee

statement that President Cliff airmailed along with my notice of appointment. Said he, "Remember, George, that the toastmaster who fancies himself a wit is usually about half right." In reply to this discouraging admonition, I found it necessary to resort to the Scriptures, and I quote from the 25th chapter of the book of Deuteronomy, 4th verse, "Thou shalt not muzzle the ox when he treadeth out the corn."

Speaking of corn, I shall have to illustrate my situation tonight. Here I am somewhat limited as to time, and yet I have a compulsion to review the life and times of Paul Elicker with NASSP. It just cannot be done within reasonable time limits, and here's where the corn begins: This is about a lad from a rural New England town who after a one-day bus trip to New York was telling some of the boys in the local drug store about the sights. Said he, "I sure seen everything. Soon's I got in I saw the show at Radio City and then I went up to the top of the Empire State Building. Then I took the electric cars and saw the Bronx Zoo. After dinner (dinner at noon is indigenous to New England, you know) I went to Staten Island on the ferry, saw the Statue of Liberty and some big ships and I went all through the Metropolitan Museum." Here an unbeliever broke in and said "Gosh! Henry, you couldn't of seen much of it. A feller could spend a month in the Metropolitan and not see it all." The traveler replied, "I did so see it all. Took me 20 minutes; if the floor hadn't been slippery, I could of made it in 15."

But I digress, what I mean to say is that after one is checked out on the operations of Paul Elicker, and his contributions to the cause of secondary education, even if the floors are not slippery, it would take an inordinately long session to give the subject the full and complete treatment he merits. Since you are all faithful cover-to-cover readers of the NASSP BULLETIN, and, unlike Johnnie, you can read, I am confident that you did not miss the December issue and the Paul Elicker stories, one a faithful report of Paul's work; the other a completely unauthorized quasi-biography of the man. Then, too, I think Paul is entitled to some relief from the stress and strain of being the object of our affection, respect, and appreciation. As Newman Levy wrote years ago, "If a man builds a better mousetrap than his neighbor, the world will not only beat a path to his door, it will make newsreels of him and his wife in beach pajamas, it will discuss his diet and his health, it will publish heartthrob stories of his lovelife, it will publicize him, analyze him, photograph him, and make his life thoroughly miserable by feeding to the palpitant public intimate details of things that are none of its damned business."

With that in mind, I shall bring my part of this ceremony to a close. From here on in, I shall be merely a medium through which NASSP speaks, for I shall read certain textual materials that accompany two tributes that it is my privilege to present to Paul tonight. The first is in the form of a plaque in silver. It is of sterling silver fashioned in the form of an open book. Here is the text:

On the left-hand page, I read,

To

PAUL EDGAR ELICKER

Teacher Administrator Friend

Year by year Paul Elicker's influence upon secondary education has widened and deepened. From classroom teaching through a variety of administrative posts culminating in two decades of national leadership, his persistent idealism and his profound understanding of the mission of the American high school have established the firm foundation upon which a noble life work rests. He has accepted responsibility with courage; he has met demanding assignments with tireless energy, and he has faced the challenge of national leadership with integrity and vision. The membership of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals records here its deep appreciation of Paul Elicker's leadership.

And on the right hand page, I read,

"TO COMMEMORATE

*The Achievement and Service of
an Educational Statesman*

PAUL EDGAR ELICKER

EXECUTIVE SECRETARY

of the

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

JULY 1, 1940—DECEMBER 31, 1959

Cliff Robinson	President
James E. Nancarrow	First Vice-President
James D. Logsdon	Second Vice-President
Eugene S. Thomas	} Executive Committee
Calloway Taulbee	
John M. Sexton	
Samuel M. Graves	
George E. Shattuck	Immediate Past President

Portland, Oregon

February 29, 1960



Now from the officer of each of the affiliated associations, from the 50 states and from overseas, it is my privilege to present a bound volume of appropriate letters of tribute addressed to you, Paul. You may read them at your leisure. I will read the preface to the volume prepared by the Committee on a Tribute to Paul Elicker.

"PREFACE

The purpose of this volume is to pay tribute to one of America's educational statesman—a tribute that comes from the 77 state and regional associations of secondary-school administrators and, through them, from over 22,000 members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Long ago, it was written that an institution is the lengthened shadow of one man. In Paul Elicker we have a man whose lengthened shadow extends from coast to coast and from border to border; nor is his influence limited to the 50 states and possessions beyond the seas. The impact of his leadership has reached every area of secondary-school activity, the philosophy, the curriculum and the administration, and, consequently, the educational well-being of the youth of America.

That these introductory words of appreciation of Paul Elicker's service to secondary education stem from others than the few members of the Tribute to Paul Elicker Committee will be revealed in the pages that follow. Some letters emphasize Paul's leadership and national influence;

some point out his admirable personal characteristics, and others emphasize his sense of dedication and devotion to the mission of NASSP. All letters, in one phrase or another say, "Well done!" And with this succinct encomium which is heartily endorsed by the Committee, the reader is cordially invited to read on and to picture the sentiments that follow as a reflection of the corporate opinion of 22,000 secondary-school administrators."

The Committee on a Tribute
to Paul Elicker

Now Paul and fellow members of NASSP, I have used up my time and still have left many things unsaid, and have touched but lightly upon our appreciative and affectionate thoughts. I think Paul would rather have it this way as he leaves one life work with honor and distinction to enter into many years of continued service to American education.

Over the years we have heard all too little at conventions from Paul. He did make many announcements and once he was pinch hitter and gave the invocation for a clergyman who failed to show. Generally, it was a deeds not a words situation. Tonight as we wish him Godspeed, it is my privilege to present Paul Elicker, finally, on the program as a Convention speaker.

Response by:

PAUL E. ELICKER

FRRIENDS, Romans, and Countrymen, lend me your ears. No. I don't want your ears, only your enduring friendship, which for me will be my greatest treasure.

If George accepted his assignment with mixed emotions causing him, the sanguine man that he is, to quote scripture, to refer to the muzzling of the ox, the treading of corn, the Metropolitan Museum, the Bronx Zoo, someone's wife in beach pajamas, a mousetrap, and one, Paul Elicker, can you imagine the confused state of mind I must now be in, in accepting this assignment, my first convention speech, after twenty years. It's like the student in college who always played on the scrub team until the final last minutes of the big game in his senior year when the coach, out of sympathy and pity, with a gasp of misplaced generosity for the boy's perseverance said, "Joe, go in there and see what you can do."

This only partially describes the spot that I am in at this moment. Thomas Paine once said, "These are the times that try men's souls." Nevertheless, I shall be highly honored to accept this beautiful plaque from you, President Cliff, and the Executive Committee, and, in fact,

Paul E. Elicker (5301 Carvel Road, Westmoreland Hills, Washington, D.C.) was Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals from July 1, 1940 to December 31, 1959.

from all of you, by way of the deft hand of Past President, George, and this bound volume of letters from the state association secretaries. I cannot, in good conscience accept these treasures for myself alone, but for many many others too, who have achieved whatever progress we together may have made in secondary education. Among others who are fully entitled to some recognition for professional achievement are you members, now 24,000 strong, the past and present officers from the 50 states and overseas areas, the many benevolent individuals who were responsible for granting us funds for special studies in secondary education and for college scholarships for young boys and girls. Among such organizations are the Ford Foundation, the General Education Board, the National Better Business Bureau, the Department of Defense of the United States, General Mills for Betty Crocker Scholarships and for additional scholarships—the Balfour Company, the Josten Company, the Grolier Foundation, the Tom McAnn Company, the Scholastic Roto, the Boeing Airplane Company, the Scholastic Magazine and several others, totaling more than \$3,000,000.

THE EARLY AMERICAN SCHOOL

The American secondary school was an evolving institution with its early beginnings in New England in 1635, more than 300 years ago, with the Latin Grammar School in Boston fashioned after the traditional English school. As people made greater demands for a school that would meet the needs of youth to live in their world and in their times, there evolved the academy advocated by Benjamin Franklin, William Penn, and other colonial leaders.

Later, in response to the critics of the day and a genuine desire to teach all educable youth, as advocated by Horace Mann and others, there came the first American high school for boys, the English High School in Boston in 1820. A few years later there appeared a free public high school for girls, which was closed after one year of operation because it was too popular and too costly. The Puritan fathers questioned the wisdom of so heavy a public expenditure for women. They asked, "Are they worth it?" This and other issues, involving the education of women, were soon resolved by the masculine mind and the high school for girls was reopened after a year.

The new American high school grew and developed at first very slowly, and nearly always under criticism by the citizens supplemented by their desire to have a good free secondary school for "all the children of all the people." It was at times a desperate struggle to achieve change and progress toward the visionary aims and purposes of the ambitious and covetous people of the time.

THE AMERICAN HIGH SCHOOL TODAY

So the American high school today, more typically the comprehensive secondary school, is the product of more than three centuries of aims and

ambition, hallucinations and hopes, criticism and compromise, and rationale and realization of the American people. It is a great school, encompassing an ever growing percentage of our youth—now about 90 per cent of all—the academically talented, the slow learners, the ambitious, the indifferent, the upright, and the delinquent, all growing up to become citizens, whether they will it so or not, to live their lives in this democracy of ours, the United States of America.

Surely the home, the church, and the school must, potentially at least, be the great and all pervading forces to shape and develop the productive lives of our youth. This great school for our youth you have achieved, not without struggle and sacrifice, despair and disappointment, amid, at times, the carping criticism of destructive and disapproving citizens.

To answer such a critic allow me to submit to you a recent study I made for the U. S. Commissioner of Education, Dr. Lawrence Derthick, a few weeks ago for his reply *via* a Congressional Committee to a noted Admiral of the Navy and builder of the nuclear submarine.

So far as I know there is only one recorded set of outcomes of the educational systems of the world that are comparable, responsible, and reliable—the winners of the Nobel Prizes over a period of 59 years. The Nobel Prizes were established by Alfred B. Nobel, a scientist and inventor, and a Swede. Since 1901, awards are made annually to men and women regardless of nationality or origin of birth "who had most benefited mankind during the preceding year." The selection is made by reputable and highly respected Swedish national agencies, such as the Swedish Academy of Science and the Swedish Academy of Literature, truly neutral organizations.

There are five categories, Physics, Chemistry, Medicine and Physiology, Literature, and World Peace. The United States leads all other nations in all categories. Tabulating the awards made since 1930, I can give you some summaries.

First, let's make the assumption that America has no priority on "brains" over other nations and that the period of awards given from 1930 to 1960 is more closely correlated with the effectiveness of education in relation to the achievement of Nobel Prize winners during the past 30 years. The total record covering all of the 59 years is equally impressive for America.

Nobel Prizes are awarded on status of nationality at time of award and accredited to the nation of present nationality. Eliminating all award winners born in other countries, with the assumption that the country of birth provided the education through the secondary school at least, I submit these adjusted summaries to you.

On this basis, since 1930, 120 awards were made in all categories to the United States, Great Britain, Germany, France, and Russia. The United States, Great Britain, and Germany are the leading nations in awards received over all other nations.

United States	57 winners or 47.5%
Great Britain	28 winners or 23%
Germany	21 winners or 17.5%
France	7 winners or 6%
Russia	7 winners or 6%

The United States leads with more than twice as many Nobel Prize winners as the next nation, Great Britain. The United States has nearly half the awards of all given to the countries of Western Europe and Russia. This is our achievement through education. You can be proud of it. You have no greater right to claim this significant distinction for American education than your predecessors. They were not content with the American secondary school as it was. Nor did they see the results of their professional handiwork with complete satisfaction and inert complacency. America has the human and natural resources to keep our schools the best in all the world and to make our schools continually better and "to make the least of them," in the words of our great leader in education, Dr. James Bryant Conant, "as good as the best of them."

You and I will continue to hear that the schools in this country are in bad shape and maybe we should. Yes, this we shall hear in a country,

1. That has economic problems because of a surplus of food.
2. That has troublesome traffic congestion because too many people own and drive automobiles.
3. That has so many people overweight because they eat too much and too often.
4. That has so much noise caused by too many push buttons, too much machinery, and too many radios and TV sets.
5. That has a culture that is decadent because life is too soft for the young and too easy for all of us.

With all of these embarrassments caused by our great abundance of everything, the United States, I maintain, is the best-fed, the best-paid, the best-clothed, the best-housed, and the best-educated nation in all the world today. A greater day for secondary education is still ahead. We now have nearly all the youth attending our schools, and they still are coming in ever increasing numbers. What more can we do for them? Our study of them—their abilities, their aptitudes, and their needs—has just begun. Our experience in providing the best and the most appropriate program of education for all of them is indeed limited. The challenge is before you as it has been so many times in the past. I join all of you, with abiding faith in the leaders yet to be, in the oncoming executive officers of this association, now the largest administrative group in secondary education in all the world, and in your new executive secretary and professional leader, Dr. Ellsworth Tompkins, or just plain "Tommy" to all of us.

Now, however great the task, however overwhelming the odds for real achievement, I know that all of you will regard the task ahead of you no greater than "The Power behind you."

In summary, I can speak on this occasion with great assurance and considerable satisfaction. I can say to all of you that you have built, amid travail and tears, a beautiful and bounteous mansion for the education of our youth, with many turrets and towers, gables and garners, with many menus and methods of mastication, fairly well equipped with modern educational facilities for learning and living.

It's a great and growing American family, eager and earnest and ever changing. It's for you, now and in the future, to provide that nurture and nature too, that will make each oncoming generation of youth better and stronger than any other preceding generation "to live the good life." This is your challenge and, speaking prophetically, but with an even greater degree of abiding faith in your power and your determination to improve education for all our youth, I join with you by using the words of Robert Browning, "Grow old along with me, the best is yet to be."

So, in closing, my swan song takes the form of a poem entitled "On Growing Old," or more appropriately sub-titled, "My Get-Up and Go Has Got-Up and Went."

A GROWING-OLD POEM

My Get-Up and Go Has Got-Up and Went

How do I know that my youth is all spent?
Well, my get-up and go has got-up and went.
But in spite of it all I am able to grin
When I think of the places my get-up has been.

Old age is golden, I've heard it said,
But sometimes I wonder as I get into bed.
With my ears in a drawer, my teeth in a cup,
My eyes on the table until I wake up.

'Ere sleep dims my eyes, I say to myself,
Is there anything else I should lay on the shelf?
And I'm happy to say as I close my door,
My friends are the same, only perhaps even more.

When I was young my slippers were red,
I could kick up my heels right over my head,
As I grew older my slippers were blue,
But I still could work the whole night through.

Now I am older, my slippers are black,
I walk to the store and puff my way back.
The reason I know my youth is most spent,
My get-up and go has got-up and went.

But I really don't mind when I think with a grin,
Of all the grand places my get-up has been.
I've been with you and yours these twenty years
Seeing you at work amid blood, sweat, and tears.
You've extended the glad hand whenever I came.
Your hearty greeting and friendship ever the same
For me each day a rich memory to remain.

Since I have retired from Life's Competition,
I busy myself with complete repetition.
I get up each morning, dust off my wits,
Pick up the paper and read the obits.
If my name is missing, I know I'm not dead,
So I eat a good breakfast and go back to bed.

Reception

Sunday, February 28, 4:00-5:30 P.M.

MASONIC TEMPLE

IN HONOR OF DR. ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS

Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School
Principals, beginning January 1, 1960

Hosts:

National Association of Secondary-School Principals
Oregon Association of Secondary-School Principals
Mrs. Gertrude H. Fariss, Principal, St. Helen's Hall, Portland, Oregon,
Chairman of the Reception Committee

Music: String Orchestra, St. Mary's Academy, Portland, Oregon; *Sister
Cecilia Claire*, Director; *Sister John Marion*, Principal

The National Association of Secondary-School Principals and the Oregon Association of Secondary-School Principals were host to more than 2,000 persons to honor the new Executive Secretary, Dr. Ellsworth Tompkins. Refreshments consisted of tea, coffee, and cookies.

Vesper Service

Sunday, February 28, 8:15 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Presiding: Calloway Taulbee, Director of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Santa Fe, New Mexico; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Invocation: Dr. Morgan S. Odell, President, Lewis and Clarke College, Portland, Oregon

Music: Portland Junior Symphony, Jacob Avshalomov, Conductor

Address:

THE NEGLECTED OBJECTIVE

THE REVEREND WESLEY G. NICHOLSON

MAY I begin by relating an ancient legend? According to this legend there were once two brothers who lived on adjoining farms. One of the brothers was married, the other was single. One evening the married brother sat in his home, surrounded by his wife and children. He gave a thought to his brother: "There is my brother," he said, "he is single, poor fellow, and must be lonely, for he has no wife and children to cheer him. I wonder what I can do to make him happier? I know what I shall do. I shall take some sheaves of wheat from my field and carry them into his field. When he sees them, he will think that his harvest has been great and his heart will be glad." So that night and on two succeeding nights, under the cover of darkness, he went out into his field and carried sheaves of wheat over into his brother's field. On that same night, the single brother sat in his house and gave a thought to his married brother. "There is my brother," he said to himself, "poor fellow, he is married. He must have a great many cares, troubles, and worries that I don't have. I wonder what I can do to help him? I know what I shall do. I shall take some sheaves of wheat from my field and carry them over into his field. When he sees them, he will think that his harvest has been great and his heart will be glad." So that night and on each of the next two succeeding nights he carried sheaves of wheat from his field over into his brother's field. But on the third night there was a moon and the two brothers ran into each other. They looked into each other's eyes and each

The Reverend Wesley Goodson Nicholson is Minister of the First Congregational Church, Eugene, Oregon.

realized what the other was trying to do for him. There on that spot the people afterward built their great temple to God, because they said on that spot the Spirit of Man and the Spirit of God were one.

It's a good parable. We shall return to it later.

I am aware as I speak of two incontrovertible facts. I am a representative of organized religion and as such I must come to all problems from that perspective; secondly, this is Sunday evening and as a minister I have been accustomed to using Sundays for the discussion of subjects which have religious implications. You will, therefore, not be surprised if I am somewhat influenced by my profession. In the selection of the topic, I attempted to stay within my field. As I have prepared for the writing of this talk, I have become increasingly perplexed because I have been unable to make up my mind whether spiritual values have been neglected in the schools or not. At least, I should say, any more neglected in the schools than anywhere else.

I have learned in my reading that school administrators have staggering problems pressing in upon them. "Inflation has hit the schools hard. Teachers' salaries have not kept pace with the upward spiral of prices; as a result teacher morale is spotty. The administrator is faced with a new influx of elementary students, the result of increased marriage rates. The rapid dislocation of population since the war has created another worry: how to build schools in newly developed areas despite the taxpayer resistance to further boosts in tax rates."

Then we add to this the perplexing problem of religion in the public schools. For a long time pressures from organized religion have been exerted on the schools. In many places and from many leaders, this has taken the shape of the demand for a "common core" of religious teaching. (I am sure you know more about this than I do.) This was based upon the assumption that there are basic expressions of belief that can be agreed upon by the three great historic expressions of faith—Catholic, Protestant, and Jewish. By and large this hope has fallen in disrepute in most of the discussions now being held. The practical inability of the religious groups to come to any terms of agreement among themselves increasingly labels this attempt at a solution as impractical.

A quick reference to one of our very new communities is very revealing. I refer to the Oak Ridge community in Tennessee. In 1943 within a very few weeks after the establishment of the community, the first meeting to organize a church was held. "In 1953, ten years later, Oak Ridge with a population of 31,000 had thirty-seven different congregations holding regular services and performing the multifunctions of the American church. Building activity was still going on, in many cases church members performing part of the work with their own hands." Thirty-seven organizations to bring organized religion to 31,000 people. This does not suggest an ability of the churches to come to any agreement on how religion should be brought to the people.

One would have hoped that, in the new communities springing up all over our country, there could have been some agreement reached as to how best, economically, religion could be brought to the people. I know that some will say that the biggest block here is the vested interests of the many denominations, each vying with all the others to get a foothold first and to make a good showing when the statistics are reported. Undoubtedly this has its important effect, but underneath is always the conviction that the substance of religion can best be presented by a particular group which justifies the pressure to see that, in each new community, a church of that particular denominational stamp is planted and as early as possible.

A second movement which seems to be falling upon the pile of the discredited is that commonly referred to as the development of a "guiding statement" for teachers. Every such attempt has elicited from the religious groups a variety of reactions. In each case where tried, there have been those who gave immediate approval, those who were moderately critical and those who were sharply antagonistic. These statements are all based upon the assumption that it is the duty of the public schools to reinforce the program of the home and church in strengthening the belief in God. It is felt that, inasmuch as God is the ground of our ultimate being and in Biblical language "in him we move and have our being," the schools must reinforce the home and the church in impressing upon the students that the ultimate source of our natural and moral law is in God. It has been felt that, in all of the disciplines, there can be found ways to make reference to God as the eternal grounding of all that is right and virtuous. In 1956 an analysis of the "guiding statement" issued in an eastern city contained this paragraph which I quote:

The statement went on to suggest how teachers in the various disciplines could get these points across to students, and it found opportunities all over the place. In science and mathematics, for example, "Consideration of the vastness and the splendor of the heavens, the marvels of the human body and mind, the beauty of nature, the mystery of photosynthesis, the mathematical structure of the universe . . . cannot do other than lead to humbleness before God's handiwork . . ." In industrial arts, "The composition of metals, the grain and the beauty of woods, the ways of electricity and the characteristic properties of the materials used, invariably give rise to speculation about the planning and the orderliness of the natural world and the marvelous working of a Supreme Power."

The response of the "three faiths" to this guiding statement must have come as something of a jolt to those who want a common American religious front. The Roman Catholic Archdiocese promptly supported the statement; the Protestant Council . . . debated awhile and finally made some comments that were partly appreciative, but mostly critical; the Board of Rabbis solidly opposed it, issued a negative analysis of it, and organized concerted preaching against it.

Similar variety of responses has greeted most attempts to formulate "guiding statements" of principles for the teaching of religion in the

schools. The essential religious pluralism of American society has been the rock upon which all such cooperative plans and attempts at uniformity in the presentation of religion have been broken. I have seen this all throughout my ministry of 35 years in the East and in the West. I could go on to make comments on the released time program, but this is not the place nor the time to give such views. Enough to say that this battle-ground will increase in intensity in the next few years and bids fair to being a troublesome problem for many communities in many sections of our country. Whatever religious pressure groups are the strongest in any given section of the country will determine the course that this troublesome matter will take. It can be said, however, quite categorically, that I know of no place where such a program is progressing smoothly; either there is open hostility from religious or quasi-religious groups in the community or there is seething behind the scenes a marked opposition that will in time break out. I do not wish to be argumentative about this. I am stating one man's opinion, aware, as I am doing it, that time does not allow for any great careful and factual development of my views. Perhaps they are general enough that no one will take issue. General or not, however, I believe them to be true to the actual situation that exists.

In my humble opinion, the work begun by the Committee on Religion and Education which issued in a report in 1947 titled "The Relation of Religion to Public Education: The Basic Principles" established a landmark in this whole field. In time I believe it will increasingly be found that there is a way to give to students an understanding of spiritual values without entering the field of dogmatics and indoctrination. I am sure all of you have spent more time than I have grappling with the contents of this important report. As a churchman I would say, continue to wrestle with the problem of how to acquaint the pupils with moral and spiritual values free of indoctrination.

I am reminded of an evening spent in the home of a University of Oregon professor. Present was a small group that contained a graduate student in history from England. He had studied much history in England. During the course of the evening, someone asked him what he was taught in England about the American Revolution. The English student hesitated for a moment and then replied, "My teachers goofed." Which, of course, means that the problem of keeping clear of indoctrination troubles other fields as well as that of religion. The goal of objectivity is not easily reached. Perhaps objectivity in religion is more difficult than in other fields, but the only answer is to struggle toward the goal. As you do this, I am sure you have the blessing of many clergymen.

I do have something positive to say. I have been greatly intrigued by a recent book which is a new and completely revised edition of one that the author published a few years earlier, specifically in 1955. The book, entitled *Protestant, Catholic, Jew*, is written by Will Herberg. Three comments about the book are on the back cover: Reinhold Niebuhr

says "... the most fascinating essay on the religious sociology of America that has appeared in decades." Monsignor John S. Kennedy comments: "... here surely is a volume that everyone seriously interested in the state of religion in America today will want to—indeed, will have to—digest ... original, brilliant, valuably constructive." Nathan Glazer of the Jewish faith remarks: "His argument ... stands as the most satisfactory explanation we have yet been given as to just what is happening to religion in America."

I shall not attempt to give a review of the book, but I wish to present one or two ideas from it. I deem them to be very important. Mr. Herberg reports that three recent surveys attempting to discover what Americans believe showed the following results: to the question do you believe in God, one survey recorded 97 per cent yes, another 96 per cent yes, and the third 95 per cent yes. Thus, 96 per cent of the American people believe in God. Seventy-five per cent of these believe themselves to be members of churches and about 58 per cent of them attend divine services more or less regularly; 90 per cent say they pray on various occasions. They believe in life after death, even in heaven and hell. They think well of the church and its ministers. They hold the Bible to be an inspired book, the "word of God." By a large majority, they think children should be given religious instruction. Thus on the surface the American people are said to be the most religious people that exist in the world and perhaps ever have existed.

But Mr. Herberg says he is not satisfied with this generalization and, therefore, probes a little into the findings and discovers what to him are grave discrepancies. These discrepancies appear in responses that these same people make to questions about their religion. Let me quote Mr. Herberg:

According to one trustworthy source, 73 per cent said they believed in an afterlife, with God as judge, but only five per cent (had) any fear, not to say expectation, of going (to hell). Indeed about 80 per cent, according to another source, admitted that what they "were most serious about" was not the life after death in which they said they believed, but in trying to live as comfortably in this life as possible. And in their opinion, they were not doing so badly even from the point of view of the divine judgment: 91 per cent felt that they could honestly say that they were trying to lead a good life, and 78 per cent felt no hesitation in saying that they more than half measured up to their standards of goodness, over 50 per cent asserting that they were in fact following the rule of loving one's neighbor as oneself "*all the way*." This amazingly high valuation that most Americans appear to place on their own virtue would seem to offer a better insight into the basic religion of the American people than any figures as to their formal beliefs can provide.

Mr. Herberg feels that perhaps the most significant discrepancy in the assertions Americans make about their religious views is to be found in another area. When asked, "Would you say your religious beliefs have any effect on your ideas of politics and business?", a majority of the same

Americans who had testified that they regarded religion as something "very important" answered that their religious beliefs had no real effect on their ideas or conduct in these decisive areas of everyday life; specifically 54 per cent said no, 39 per cent said yes, and seven per cent refused to reply or didn't know. Thus 61 per cent of those who felt religion to be important virtually confessed that their religion had no bearing on their conduct of business or their political views. Mr. Herberg adds: "This disconcerting confession of the irrelevance of religion to business and politics was attributed by those who appraised the results of the survey as pointing to a calamitous divorce between the 'private' and the 'public' realms in the religious thinking of Americans."

I suppose this is the core of all the talk that has been indulged about the secularization of American life—the living of the vital relations of business and politics without any reference to the demands of a high religious command. Reinhold Niebuhr has recently said: "We are religious in the sense that religious communities enjoy the devotion and engage the active loyalty of more laymen in America than in any other nation of the Western world. We are secular in the sense that we pursue the immediate goals of life, without asking too many questions about the meaning of life and without being too disturbed by the tragedies and animomies of life." It is this that makes some of us most uncomfortable, for we have an uneasy feeling that, if the churches did have their way and religion were more completely taken into the public schools, what profit would there be if the religion which were propagated had substantially no relevance to the business and political life of our society?

But we are not through with Mr. Herberg. He goes on to suggest that some ideas and standards undeniably govern the conduct of Americans in their affairs of business and politics. He quotes from a sociological interpretation of American Society written by Robin M. Williams, Jr. Mr. Williams finds that "every functioning society has, to an important degree, a common religion. The possession of a common set of ideas, rituals, and symbols can supply an overarching sense of unity even in a society riddled with conflicts." Mr. Herberg discovers this common religion of Americans in what is known as "The American Way of Life."

The American way of life is at bottom a spiritual structure, a structure of ideas and ideals, of aspirations and values, of beliefs and standards: it synthesizes all that commends itself to the American as the right, the good, and the true in actual life. It embraces such seemingly incongruous elements as sanitary plumbing and freedom of opportunity, Coca-Cola and an intense faith in education—all felt as moral questions relating to the proper way of life. The very expression "way of life" points to its religious essence, for one's ultimate, over-all way of life is one's religion.

This American Way of Life is the practical religion of a vast majority of our people. It is basically uncritical of itself. None of the great and historic judgments of the three great religions are in practice brought to bear upon it. It is self-satisfied, arrogant, and lacking in essential humility.

Among other investigations of its content, he takes the great principle of our Judeo-Christian heritage—the law of inclusive love—and reports a poll conducted by the *Ladies Home Journal*. Americans were asked “to look within (themselves) and state honestly whether (they) thought (they) really obeyed the law of love under certain special conditions”; 90 per cent said yes and five per cent no when the one to be “loved” was a person belonging to a different religion; 80 per cent said yes and 12 per cent said no when it was the case of a member of a different race; 78 per cent said yes and 10 per cent no when it concerned a business competitor—but only 27 per cent said yes and 57 per cent no in the case of “a member of a political party that you think is dangerous,” while 25 per cent said yes and 63 per cent said no when it concerned an enemy of the nation. Mr. Herberg finds these figures illuminating, first, because of the incredible self-assurance they reveal with which the average American believes he fulfills the “impossible” law of love. He feels they do not reflect actual feelings but they express the attitudes that the American Way of Life expects that one should act. It is what the American Way of Life feels one ought to do that is the controlling factor. Americans feel they ought to love their fellowman in spite of race, color, or creed, but they also feel they ought not love anyone who is any sense expressing ideas contrary to the American Way of Life.

Specifically what is this American Way of Life? Although the paragraph is long, I think I ought to let Mr. Herberg describe it for you. Here it is in his words:

The American Way of Life is individualistic, dynamic, pragmatic. It affirms the supreme value and dignity of the individual; it stresses incessant activity on his part, for he is never to rest, but is always to be striving to “get ahead”; it defines an ethic of self-reliance, merit, and character, and judges by achievement: “deeds, not creeds” are what count. The American Way of Life is humanitarian, “forward looking,” optimistic. Americans are easily the most generous and philanthropic people in the world, in terms of their ready and unstinting response to suffering anywhere on the globe. The American believes in progress, in self-improvement, and quite fanatically in education. But above all, the American is idealistic. Americans cannot go on making money or achieving worldly success simply on its own merits; such “materialistic” things must, in the American mind, be justified in “higher” terms, in terms of “service” or “stewardship” or “general welfare.” Because Americans are so idealistic, they tend to confuse espousing an ideal with fulfilling it and are always tempted to regard themselves as good as the ideals they entertain; hence the amazingly high valuation most Americans quite sincerely place on their own virtue. And because they are so idealistic, Americans tend to be moralistic; they are inclined to see all issues as plain and simple, black and white, issues of morality.

We are mainly interested in such expressions as “deeds, not creeds are what counts”; “always striving to get ahead”; “they tend to confuse espousing an ideal with fulfilling it and are always tempted to regard themselves as good as the ideals they entertain.” I am impressed with the fact that this is the uncritical life. This is the conformist’s life. This is the life

that will go with anyone who calls the tune. This is the life that mainly is motivated by self. It is the life divorced from any major responsibility for the ethics and principles that guide the common life. We are all partly to blame for this. By the same token, unsatisfactory standards can only be dealt with by all of us working together. It is time that the church ceased pointing the accusing finger at the schools and the schools at the home and the home at both the schools and the church. The spirit of the ancient legend must be brought to bear. A generous thought by each toward the other groups would free us to spend all of our energies in the direction of solutions.

I am not interested in solutions. What I mainly wanted to do now is to point up what I believe to be one of the major critical problems of our time. The schools in their fostering of the spiritual attitudes, in their teaching of ethical standards and philosophical principles on all the levels have failed to motivate the pupils toward personal responsibility for the ethics of the common life of business and politics. The churches have been no less a failure in relating the great eternal commands of the three major faiths to the fundamental issues of our common life. What we need is a new sense of responsibility on the part of us all. All over the land in all of our major communities, leaders must continue to sit down and wrestle with this dangerous dychotomy in our common life. Either morals and religion will control the common life or the tune will be called first by one unscrupulous group after another. You and I had better find out how to make people responsible.

Fourth General Session

Monday, February 29, 9:30 A.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Organ Prelude: Glenn A. Shelley, Organist, Radio Station KOIN, Portland, Oregon

Presiding: James E. Nancarrow, Principal, Upper Darby Senior High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania; First Vice President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Platform Guests:

Past Presidents of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Presidents of State Associations of Secondary-School Principals

Invocation: Rabbi Jack Segal, Congregation Neveh Zedek, Portland, Oregon

Music: Choir, Lincoln High School, Tacoma, Washington; enrollment, 2,527; Leonard E. Schuchman, Director; Kenneth W. Flora, Principal

Introduction of Ellsworth Tompkins

(Executive Secretary of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, beginning January 1, 1960)

President Cliff Robinson

I HOPE that the briefness of my remarks will not detract from the importance of this occasion. As you know, Paul Elicker retired December 31, 1959, after almost twenty years of service to our Association as its Executive Secretary.

His successor was picked several years ago and served with Paul as an Associate Secretary. Most of you have known Tommy for many years and have watched him serve with distinction in a variety of important educational positions. We know we are very fortunate in having one so able in charge of our program.

Your officers and members of the Executive Committee want me to present him to you at this time.

Tommy, this is a fine representation of the more than 23,000 members who are your bosses.

Members, stand and greet your new Executive Secretary, Dr. Ellsworth Tompkins.

Addresses:

WHO SHOULD GO TO COLLEGE?

LEE A. DUBRIDGE

IT MAY appear to most of you that the subject of "Who Should Go to College?" is not very cogently related to the general subject of discussion at this meeting of secondary-school principals. You are met here in Portland to discuss methods of improving the quality of secondary-school education throughout the country. You may regard it as an impertinence to be forced to listen to a college president discuss which of your prized high-school graduates the colleges will deign to admit in coming years.

Nevertheless, I should like to ask your indulgence in pondering this subject with me for a few minutes because I sincerely believe that the question of who will be attending the institutions of higher education in the United States in coming years is a subject of profound importance to our secondary schools; it reaches deeply into the fundamental questions of the nature and quality of our public school educational patterns.

Lee A. DuBridge is President of California Institute of Technology, Pasadena, California.

If we examine the statistics of attendance at colleges and universities in this country during recent decades, and project them into the future, we are almost forced to answer the question of "who will go to college in 1970?" with the simple answer that "practically everybody will be in college by then." We need to go back only 60 years, to the year 1900, to find an era in which only four out of every 100 young people of college age were enrolled in a college or university in the United States. In those days not very many young people completed high school either—in fact, only nine per cent—so, actually, a majority of the high-school students were preparing for college, even though they constituted a tiny percentage of the total college-age population. In the years succeeding 1900, the number of boys and girls attending high school rose very rapidly, so that in 1930 three quarters of the high-school-age young people in this country entered high school and 45 per cent finished. But the college population had risen only from four per cent to some 15 per cent of the age group. Thus, in 1930 only a third of the high-school graduates were planning to go on with their education, and high-school practices and policies were adapted largely to the majority of students not planning to attend college.

As the years went by, this situation changed again. By 1959, 80 per cent or more of the able-bodied and able-minded 17-year-olds in the country were finishing high school, and nearly 50 per cent of the high-school graduates were entering a college or university.

Everyone is entitled to make his own prognostications of the future. However, even the most conservative estimates suggest that by 1970 over 50 per cent of all the young people of college age will be attending some college or university, and this will represent 65 per cent or more of the students who have actually graduated from high school. Consequently, our secondary schools are facing again the situation that two thirds of their students will be preparing for some form of education beyond the high-school years.

Therefore, it is again true that a majority, and not a minority, of the students who are now in secondary schools are preparing for higher education. Obviously, these proportions vary greatly from one part of the country to another, and often from one part of a community to another. There are many high schools in which 75 to 90 per cent of the graduates expect to attend college; and there are other schools in which this percentage is below 20. Needless to say, the policies of individual school systems must be adapted to local situations and local clientele. Nevertheless, it is clear that henceforth the average American high school is going to be forced to devote a major part of its attention to the preparation for college work of a very large proportion of its students.

I do not wish to imply in this that the needs and interests of a majority of the students in high school shall be predominant over the interests of the minority who are not planning for post-high-school work. I attach

very great importance to the problem of giving proper attention to those students who, for a variety of reasons, will terminate their formal education at the end of their high-school years. I only wish to emphasize that it is equally important that we continue to give serious attention to the large number of students planning to continue education beyond the high school. And these are no longer in the minority, as was true 30 years ago.

I realize that this situation is perfectly familiar to you as high-school principals. You are fully aware of the developments which I have described. I repeat the figures again only to reinforce my thesis that things have changed since 1930, and I am talking about a major and not a minor problem when I now discuss the question of college attendance.

In his recent book, *The Child, the Parent, and the State*, Dr. James B. Conant points out that the great decrease in the percentage of high-school students who were preparing for higher education which took place between 1900 and 1930 caused a radical revolution in our theories of education, in our preparation of teachers, and in the curricula of our high schools. With a growing number of students with vocational or manual rather than academic interests or skills, the high schools were forced to abandon much of their emphasis on mathematics, language, and rhetoric and extend their courses on cooking, woodworking, citizenship, and "life adjustment." However much many people today regret that development, it was a sign of the times and it was in response to an irresistible social demand.

But now the situation has reversed itself again. Preparation for college is again the goal of most high-school students—in all but the most remote and backward areas. And a new response to a new situation is clearly called for. Intellectual excellence again takes precedence over "life adjustment."

It must be noted that the colleges have changed their curricula also. No longer are Latin, Greek, mathematics, philosophy, and jurisprudence the major elements of a liberal arts course. To a substantial extent, the widening base of college attendance has changed our concepts of higher education. A host of quasi-vocational curricula have developed—business, journalism, accounting, agricultural techniques—with varying degrees of academic content. These, too, were in response to an insistent social demand.

But here too the situation is changing. The intellectual content of higher education—never forgotten of course—is now being emphasized more and more. Literature, history, political science, mathematics, and natural science are coming back into their own, even in the vocational and pre-professional curricula. And more and more are the colleges recognizing the deficiencies in preparation of many of their students who have never learned to read, write, spell, or do simple arithmetic. Therefore, it seems to me, the time is ripe for a renewed collaboration between secondary

and higher education; a renewed revival of interest in and emphasis on academic subjects, a renewed insistence all along the line in intellectual excellence, a renewed recognition of the distinction between training and education.

Above all, we recognize today that intellectual talent is our most important national asset and we cannot afford to allow it to be wasted.

Hence, as college teachers look more closely at the high-school preparation their students are receiving, the high-school teacher would do well to look more carefully—yes, more critically too—at the colleges to which most of his students will be going.

More and more, I believe, it is becoming meaningless for an individual to state simply that he is "going to college"; more and more it becomes important for him to indicate to *which* college he is going, or at least to what *kind* of a college. One of the great features of American higher education—one of its great glories as well as one of its puzzles to our friends from other countries—is the great diversity in American higher education. You are all aware of the fact that we have nearly two thousand institutions—junior colleges, colleges, and universities—which offer educational opportunities beyond the high-school level. This does not include the hundreds of technical and vocational institutes which offer post-high-school training of various sorts, but of a nature which does not merit the term of "higher" education. (Again, I do not derogate the importance of education of a vocational nature for a large number of American youth who are going into business, industrial, agricultural, and other occupations. But *more* education should not be confused with *higher* education, and it is higher education which is the subject of my discussion today.)

The point I am making is that even the term *higher education* does not have a specific and well-defined meaning in America. Our colleges and universities cater to a wide variety of talents and interests and a wide variety of educational or professional aims. There are colleges which will admit practically any high-school graduate; indeed there are many colleges which, by law, are required to admit everyone with a high-school diploma. There are, on the other hand, colleges whose selectivity is so great that only those in the upper one or two per cent of the high-school group can gain admission. Obviously, higher education cannot have the same meaning in institutions which vary so widely in their admission standards.

It is also well known that a larger and larger percentage of American college students are enrolled in public, as compared to private, institutions. In 1900 less than 40 per cent of the college enrollment was in public and 60 per cent in private institutions. By 1959 the figures were almost reversed—58 per cent were enrolled in public and 42 per cent in private institutions. By 1970 it is expected that the percentage of students in the public institutions will have risen to 65, and in private

institutions it will have declined to 35. In California this latter figure will be only 20 per cent. This, of course, is not because the absolute enrollment in private institutions is going down, but only because the public institutions are, of necessity, expanding much more rapidly than the private institutions can to meet the rapidly rising demand for higher education.

I do not wish to infer that this is an unfortunate or bad situation. I think it is inevitable as our student population rises in future years that the great bulk of the increasing load must fall upon tax-supported rather than upon privately supported institutions. Private funds are barely sufficient to keep these institutions at present capacity.

Nevertheless, I think an important consequence is certain to follow. By and large, in the country as a whole, the private institutions—especially the so-called “prestige” institutions—will be able to accept a smaller and smaller percentage of those who apply for admission. Consequently, the standards of admission in them will continually rise and admission will be granted only to those at the very top of their age group in intellectual ability and achievement. This is not to say that many brilliant students will not be going to the public institutions also. But, by and large, students below the average level of intellectual achievement will be admitted mostly to the public institutions.

This does not mean that every public institution will be accepting students of lesser ability than any private institution. In California, for example, if the new Master Plan for Higher Education is adopted, admission to the University of California at its various campuses will be restricted to those in the upper one eighth of their high-school classes. Their standards of admission will thus be comparable to the most restrictive of the private institutions. However, the state *colleges* of California, under the Master Plan, will admit students in the upper one third of their high-school classes, while the junior colleges will continue in the future as in the past to admit any high-school graduate who applies.

I recite these figures only to bring out the point that, while two thirds of the high-school graduates of 1970 will be going on to institutions of higher education, the particular institution to which a student will be admitted will be a matter which should give the student, his teacher, and his family great concern. With the great diversity of institutions of higher education in this country, it will always be true that there is surely one college or university which is just right for every individual student. But it is equally true that the finding of the right college or university will become a matter of ever-increasing difficulty and one to which each student should give greater and greater attention.

Intellectual standards, professional or preprofessional opportunities, and curricular emphasis must all be given consideration—in addition to the usually more obvious but clearly noneducational factors of costs, social status, geography, or athletic reputation. The days of casual selection of a college or university are over—or should be over for all but

the most mediocre student. And for them the opportunity for selection will soon be sharply limited. The choice of the right college is now a matter deserving the most prolonged and careful consideration by student, parent, and teacher.

This situation can be summarized by saying that, for a large number of the major colleges and universities of the country, the competition for admission is becoming keener and keener. The total number of students admitted to college and the percentage of high-school graduates admitted to college is undoubtedly going to rise. But a large number of the older and more famous universities of the country, public and private, are going to remain relatively fixed in capacity and can therefore admit only an ever-decreasing fraction of the students who apply.

The net result of this situation is going to be what I consider to be a healthy intellectual competition. I am convinced that open, honest intellectual competition throughout our high schools and colleges will be a good thing. We have always been perfectly frank about athletic competition, about a boy's ability to make the football or basketball team. But we have been reticent to talk about differences in intellectual ability. Henceforth, however, it is going to be obviously and clearly true that admission to the best universities of the country is going to be open only to those who have proved by past achievement that they have both the ability and the determination to attain intellectual excellence. Those who are satisfied with a "gentleman's C" must also be satisfied with the C institutions. Again I insist that we must avoid intellectual snobbery, for these C-grade institutions will be performing a valuable service and we should salute and respect them. Just as we do not look down on M.I.T. because its football team does not compete with Notre Dame or Michigan State, so we must respect the Valley View Junior College which is going to be catering to a different intellectual level than Harvard, M.I.T., or Caltech. All accredited institutions will be doing a valuable job. Nevertheless, we must face the fact that there are differences in intellectual level and that each institution must cater to certain ranges of abilities. Not only that but, for the first time, it must become widely known among the colleges themselves, among high schools, and to the parents, teachers, and students, the intellectual levels to which each institution of the country is catering. There is no more sense for a below-average student to waste time in applying to Harvard or Stanford or Berkeley than for a 130-pound stripling to try to make the Michigan State football team. Every high-school student should be encouraged to do the very best that his intellectual capacities will allow him to do, and then accept the level to which this leads him and choose an institution where he will be in competition with his peers. A student should be no more proud or no more ashamed of his College Board scores than he is proud or ashamed of his height or weight or chest measurement. Every individual has inherited his biological characteristics and he should recognize what they are and then proceed to make the best possible use of them. I trust that the

increasing competition for admission to chosen institutions of higher education will bring the matter of intellectual competition out into open realms of discussion and frank recognition.

While making the above remarks, I must hasten to add that it is unfortunately true that the art of measuring intellectual capacity is still in its infancy. Those colleges and universities of the country who must select a small number of students from a large number of applicants are faced with the distressing fact that there is no method of selection which is 100 per cent reliable in predicting success. At the California Institute of Technology, for example, we admit only one student out of every five who complete applications—and our students stand at the very top in College Board scores. We desperately try, by every means at our command, to judge which of the applicants have the greatest potentiality for being successful in their academic work and profiting from our particular type of educational program. But we make a distressingly large number of mistakes. Students who we are sure will make good, flunk out; others whom we admit with great trepidation appear in the upper part of their class. The statistician may brag that the students we admit have a high "probability" of succeeding. But the 10 or 20 per cent who don't fit the probability curves, one way or the other, pose a distressing problem. This problem is going to become more distressing in more institutions and more widespread throughout the country as competition for admission to certain colleges and universities increases.

I am sure that it will never be possible to predict college performance with a 100-per cent degree of reliability. Intellectual capacity is not accurately measurable, and still less measurable are the characteristics of determination, motivation, and inspiration. This poses a serious problem which all high-school and college teachers should face frankly, and which the resources of secondary schools and colleges should be mobilized to solve.

As I have already indicated, the problem is composed of two parts: (1) the measurement of innate intellectual capacity (if this is possible); and (2) the evaluation and prediction of response to motivating influences (if *this* is possible).

Finally, there is a group of characteristics, which are certainly not measurable, which we denote by the terms "character," "determination," "personality," "ambition," "good citizenship," *etc.* Colleges are going to be more and more concerned with the evaluation of all these factors by one method or another—and they are going to depend more and more on information they can glean about each student from high-school teachers and counselors. I am sure that College Entrance Board scores are going to be ever more important in screening applicants. But final admission will not be based on a solely numerical averaging process. Personality and motivation factors will play increasingly critical roles in admission to the high-quality institutions as they try to make choices among many students of nearly equal intellectual aptitudes.

This is one reason why new responsibilities fall upon the high schools. It will not be enough to turn out students who do well on the College Boards. More and more will the teachers, principals, and counselors be asked questions such as: Could the student have done better? Was his performance only a fluke? Is he *really* a good student? Is he lazy or ambitious, of good or bad character? Is he really *interested* in learning?

And I predict that, more and more, it will be found that the high schools are able to answer these questions of how a student is likely to perform in college only if they create in the high school an atmosphere of learning similar to what is found in the best colleges. If a student responds well to that atmosphere, then it can be reliably predicted that he will respond also to the atmosphere of the college. It is sometimes said that the only way to be sure whether a student will do well in college is to send him to college and see. Since that may no longer be always possible, the next best thing is to see how well he does in a good high school. If this results in an insistent demand from students, parents, and taxpayers that *all* high schools be good, then clearly the millenium will have arrived.

This, of course, leads directly to the heart of the problem: What makes a high school good? It would be a brave person indeed who pretended to have all the answers to that question—and he would have to be still braver to presume to present them to this audience. But if you will permit a college representative to make a few suggestions as to how high schools can improve the chances that their better students will be admitted to, and then be graduated from, a good college, I shall be bold enough to give you my personal views—for what they are worth.

1. Create an atmosphere in which intellectual achievement is recognized, admired, and respected. Already, in recent years, there has been a strong move in this direction. There is every reason to encourage this tendency, for there is now a widespread realization on the part of students, parents, and citizens that intellectual excellence must be the aim of our schools and that intellectual achievement must be the goal of all students. A few years ago an applicant for Caltech admission could say with perfect frankness that he would love to be awarded an athletic scholarship, but that he would be frankly ashamed to accept a "brain scholarship." Since that is the only kind we offer, he did not come to Caltech. Back in 1950 this was not an unusual attitude. It is far less usual today, but we can still go much further in this direction.

2. Provide a solid base of academic subjects required of all students, and provide that all except those clearly not of college material devote all, or nearly all, of their attention to such subjects. Extracurricular activities to develop special hobbies, interests, and skills deserve earnest encouragement, but school time should be devoted to school subjects.

3. Recognize the wide variations in the intellectual capacities among any group of students. Our grading systems have sometimes led us to the conclusion that the best student may be able to learn, say, twice as much

as a very poor student (a fine student gets a "100"; a poor one, "50"). But the difference between the most capable and the most inept student is not a factor of 2, but a factor of 10, 50, or 100. It is usually pretty obvious when the student of low capacity has reached his limit, but it is not nearly so obvious when a student of very high capacity is coasting along at far below his capacity. Yet, it is of utmost importance that we find methods to give opportunity to every student to reach the uppermost limits of his intellectual aptitude, and to give him more positive encouragement and assistance and incentives in reaching these limits. We could do far more than we have ever done in the past, both in high school and in college, in encouraging the exceptionally able student to go far beyond the limits of the classroom and the textbook, to undertake special studies, special reading, special projects, special activities, which will give him a far more profound and more extensive grasp of his subjects. Everyone knows how positively breathtaking it can be to see an unusually able student move far ahead of his classmates when he has the encouragement and the opportunity. It is not always easy to make this possible, but it is terribly important that we find the mechanisms for doing it more adequately.

4. High-school teachers and college and university teachers must work far more intimately together in re-examining the subject matter content of high-school courses. Not only in science and mathematics, but also in social sciences and the humanities, it is of great importance that high-school courses be kept abreast of the latest scholarly advances in the field. It is only too often true that the bright student can read in the newspapers or weekly magazines about scientific advances which seem quite foreign to, or even in contradiction to, the materials he is studying in the classroom. This need not be. I do not mean that a high-school physics course can include a discussion of the most recent advances in quantum electrodynamics, nuclear physics, or space technology, for example. But, equally obviously, the ideas of atoms and molecules, of particles and waves, and the development of the great and revolutionary modern concepts of the universe can be brought to the high-school student in meaningful and exciting ways. Fortunately, a number of projects, largely stimulated by the National Science Foundation, are under way to revamp the science material available to high-school teachers. I hope that this will initiate a revolution in the substantive content of high-school science courses. It is needed because there has been a revolution in science—in every branch of science—in recent years, and the new material and the new frontiers need to be a part of every high-school course.

5. Finally—and most difficult and most important of all—we must somehow inculcate in students at all levels more of the love of learning, more of the adventure of learning. If a student can be convinced when he leaves college that the real adventures of learning are still ahead of him and not behind him, that the real value of learning will be the extent to which he continues to learn all his life, then, and only then, will our

schools and colleges be performing their real intellectual function. Then and only then can we be confident that our full intellectual resources will be used and not wasted.

LUCKY ACCIDENTS, GREAT DISCOVERIES, AND THE PREPARED MIND

HUBERT N. ALYEA

LUCKY accidents have made possible man-made plastics, man-made drugs, and man-made atoms. But each lucky accident which led to a great discovery did so because the experimenter was trained. As Pasteur has said: "Chance favors only the prepared mind."

Plastics

Lucky accidents made possible plastics from cotton and wood, plastics from coal, and plastics from petroleum. From cotton and wood came cellulose plastics: Hyatt's celluloid, Nobel's dynamite, lacquer in place of paint. An observant and intelligent clerk in the automobile industry, seeing a silversmith lacquering a silver pitcher with cellulose nitrate solution, suddenly thought "Why not lacquer an automobile?" From coal came the first Bakelite phenol-formaldehyde plastic. A careless janitor spilled a bucket of soapy water into a trough of plastic emulsion and a new way to make plastic adhere to copper wire was discovered because the test-laboratory immediately detected the change in the plastic coated wire. From petroleum came a host of newer plastics, members of the vinyl family; and the luckiest of them all was Teflon—polytetrafluoroethylene is its high-sounding technical name. But the prepared mind of Dr. Roy Plunkett was ready to interpret why his empty tank was heavier at night than in the morning, and Teflon was born, to become a multi-million pound plastic which withstands high temperatures and corrosive liquids. In these stories, luck and a prepared mind played a dual role.

Drugs

Man-made drugs began their lucky career just a century ago with Sir William Perkin's accidental discovery of coal-tar aniline dyes. But the story of the lucky discovery of *penicillin notatum* by Alexander Fleming, its isolation, identification, and industrial production tops them all. Again the prepared minds of several scientists made possible this life-saving drug.

Atomic Energy

The story of atomic energy—weapon for peace or for annihilation—starts with Becquerel's lucky observation half a century ago that a piece

Hubert N. Alyea is Professor of Chemistry and Director of the Frick Chemical Laboratory, Princeton University, Princeton, New Jersey.

of uranium salt could photograph itself. Out of that chance discovery came our understanding of atomic structure, of the ways to smash atoms, of how to unleash atomic energy in bombs, or to harness it in atomic power reactors, or to use it in making radioactive elements for peacetime research.

ADVICE TO STUDENTS

In all of these cases, chance came to the trained mind. And how should our students prepare themselves to make great discoveries? Let us consider, for example, those who want to become great scientists.

First, by becoming experts. Not only by taking laboratory sciences, but by taking more mathematics, so we learn to think more clearly; by taking more English, so we learn to express ourselves more clearly, to communicate better with our fellow scientists. The young scientist who hates to read *A Tale of Two Cities* (and I hardly blame him) will do well to set himself the task of reading at least one good science classic each month—H. G. Wells: *The Invisible Man*, *A War of the Worlds*; A. Conan Doyle: *The Poison Belt*, *The Adventures of Sherlock Holmes*.

Second, by being human. Spending time outside of the classroom away from books, learning how to get along with people, mixing in extra-curricular activities in school, taking part in dramatics, in sports, in activity clubs.

Third, by preparing to be leaders. Unskilled labor is no more; and more skilled laborers need more skilled leaders. How do you train to be a skilled leader? Work hard—you will be luckiest when you work hardest. But also work intelligently—keep your nose to the grindstone, but turn your head this way and that so as to sharpen your nose, not grind it off. Have imagination—we all guess in science, and we give Nobel Prizes to the best guessers. Do not be afraid to venture intelligent guesses, for skilled leaders are men who guess wisely. Finally, develop self-confidence—a self-confidence which grows stronger as you become more confident in your ability to guess wisely. The plumber charged \$25 for tapping on a pipe: \$1 for tapping, and \$24 for knowing *where* to tap—he had learned wisely where to tap.

ADVICE TO PEOPLE

But all the marvelous discoveries in the world will not save our civilization from annihilation if we do not learn to use our knowledge of atomic energy wisely. What are we going to do in a world in which there are such fantastic weapons? It seems to me that there is but one answer: complete and total demilitarization of every nation in the world, *with* an international force to maintain peace. This is not something which is easily achieved; but we should be busy about our business right now.

Scientists are receiving huge sums of money for research to keep America militarily strong; this must be. But there will be no right measure of things until we appropriate dollar for dollar equal sums of money to our political scientists to learn how to get peoples of all

nations to understand one another better. We have a Secretary of War; why not also a Secretary of Peace? We have huge military training academies; and this is wise and proper. But why not also have a huge Diplomatic Academy where young men may train how to represent our country properly? I can assure you that many of the unfortunate situations presented in *The Ugly American* I myself experienced the year I was in Belgium at the Exposition. Yes, we must learn to advertise our country better.

I fear far more Russia's economic might than their military might. Why should they risk a military front if their economic and psychological front succeeds so well? And so I hope that the urgency brought on by atomic bombs, by the fantastic power of these new weapons, will force peoples of the world to relinquish some of their national rights to bring about an international understanding where, under a new international law and order, we may achieve, at last, peace among men of good will.

Fifth General Session

Monday, February 29, 8:15 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Presiding: John M. Sexton, Principal, Northeast High School, St. Petersburg, Florida; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Platform Guests: Portland Convention Committee

LAND OF THE EMPIRE BUILDERS

A super-spectacle giving the flavor of 100 years of the Oregon Country, presented by drama, music, and the spoken word. As this fast-moving production went forward, Convention members recognized the contribution their locale made to the Oregon Country. This was presented by a cast of 400, an all-city orchestra of 80 pieces, a high-school chorus of 900 voices, and an elementary-school chorus of 300 voices from 80 elementary schools.

Presented by: Portland Public Schools; Jonathan W. Edwards, Superintendent. Principal episodes were presented by the following Portland high schools:

Franklin High School, Kenneth A. Erickson, Principal

Jefferson High School, Charles L. Jones, Principal

Madison High School, Stephen E. Smith, Principal

Washington High School, Clifford J. Skinner, Principal

Director: A. Verne Wilson, Supervisor of Music, Portland Public Schools

All-City Elementary Chorus Director: Jesse S. Foster, Assistant Supervisor of Music

Dramatic Coordinator: Ralph W. Bassett, Supervisor of Foreign Languages

Administrative Coordinator: Lawrence Winter, Assistant Superintendent

PROGRAM

OVERTURE—From the Western World.....*Dvorak*

All-City High-School Orchestra

AMERICA.....*Henry Carey*

NATURE

In the GardenGoldmark

Second Movement, Nordic SymphonyHanson

THE FIRST AMERICAN.....WASHINGTON HIGH SCHOOL

The Louisiana Purchase was unknown territory in 1803. Captains Lewis and Clark were commissioned by President Jefferson to explore this vast area. After unbelievable hardships, they returned with accurate accounts of the Indian tribes, their customs and manners, as well as maps of the region and other vital information of value to the government. Thus, we have the first recorded and authentic information on the Indian of the western part of what is now the United States. Many tribal names, as well as tribes, are extinct today, and the few reservations hold but remnants of once mighty nations that roamed over thousands of square miles which they called their homeland 150 years ago. Legend, song, and story, however, perpetuate their memory for us.

Choral Director.....C. LeRay Heick

Dramatics Directors.....Ethel MacRae, Marion Van Haur

Dance Director.....Ione Walker

Narrators.....John Campbell, Shirley Vergeer

Dancers.....Bam Martan, Joe Chartier,

Donna Boehler, Johan Wilson, Barbara Blair

On the Mountain I Hear the Sound of Wind.....Ute Song

Lonely Is the Land.....British Columbia Indian Melody

From an Indian Lodge.....MacDowell

Adrift from the Mountain Mist.....George McKay

Dagger Dance from "Natoma".....Victor Herbert

BEAVER.....MADISON HIGH SCHOOL

The report of Lewis and Clark prompted venturesome men to go into the wilderness known as the Louisiana Purchase or Oregon Territory to seek their fortunes in furs. To some extent, the French from Canada had preceded the Americans. Many well-known names in early western history are connected with the fur trade—Dr. John McLoughlin of the Hudson's Bay Company, John Jacob Astor, David

Thompson, Nathaniel Wyeth, and many others. Fortunes were made in raw furs that have been handed down through generations to the present time. They were a hardy breed, living on the country as they went from valley to valley, river to river, and back to the settlements with their trophies. The tales they told of the new country prompted thousands of others to venture west in search of new homes and fortunes.

Choral Director.....	Joseph F. Edmiston
Dramatics Director.....	Rochka Kerrigan
Dance Director.....	Bette Rhodaback
Narrator.....	Mathew Corey

Ho! for the Life of a Voyageur.....	<i>French Folk Song</i>
Alouette.....	<i>French Folk Song</i>
Annie Laurie.....	<i>Scotch-Johnstone</i>

MEN OF GOD

Following closely after the fur trader came the men of God, determined to bring the Word of the Great Father to the red men of the west, who had heard of the Great Book through early contact with the fur traders. Pathetic appeal by the Indians for the Great Book prompted the early adventures of missionaries into this great unknown land. Those whose names are associated with the early pioneer work of the gospel are Dr. Marcus Whitman, Jason Lee, and Father Blanchette. To a rough raw land and its people, they were a symbol of the Almighty. Their early Christianizing influence has stood the test of time, and the schools they founded over one hundred years ago are thriving colleges and universities today.

Beautiful Saviour.....	<i>Christiansen</i>
Dona Nobis Pacem.....	<i>Author Unknown</i>
Away in a Manger.....	<i>German Melody</i>
A Mighty Fortress Is Our God.....	<i>Bach</i>

PIONEERS.....FRANKLIN HIGH SCHOOL

The settlements along the lower Mississippi and Ohio River valleys began to receive more and more glowing accounts of the opportunities in the new country known as the Oregon Territory. Societies were formed for promotion of migration to the promised land. One of the most romantic episodes in all western history is the migration westward over the Oregon Trail and its many branches, leading to various areas on the west coast. By the thousands and tens of thousands, those migrants left the settlements in the Mississippi valley. They faced hardships and dangers which they little realized at the outset. Savage Indians, wild animals, surging streams, roadless mountains, dusty plains, and winter snows failed to deter them in their efforts. Many were the fatalities along the way, but those who arrived built an empire.

Choral Director.....	John C. Peery
Orchestra Director.....	G. Elmer Pancheau
Dramatics Directors.....	James F. Shaffer, JoAnne Veatch
Dance Director.....	P. E. Department

Narrators.....Mark Farah, Judy Burke
 Old-Time Orchestra.....Bob Widing, Paulette Wellman,
 Carol Twedt, Don Ivey, Robert Oliverio, Ron Began

Pioneers.....Walt Whitman
 Turkey in the Straw.....*American Tune*
 Sweet Betsy from Pike.....Arr. by Robert Choate
 Susanna (Oregon Version).....Foster-Null
 Come, Come Ye Saints.....Arr. by J. Spencer Cornwall

STATEHOOD

Americans flowed into the Oregon Territory in an unstemmable tide. The days of the domination by the British through the sovereign right to rule, given the Hudson's Bay Company, were numbered. The first to recognize this was Dr. John McLoughlin, their factor at Ft. Vancouver. Washington, D. C., was slow to recognize that an empire was being built on the other side of the continent by men and women of sterling character who would not be denied that which they rightly recognized as their just due. After severance with the British at Champeog in 1843, they assumed territorial status in 1848, and finally statehood in 1859. Leadership had prevailed over non-understanding opposition 3,000 miles away; and thousands of square miles of priceless land, its loyal citizens and a new star were added to the union.

Tenting Tonight.....Kittridge
 Battle Hymn of the Republic.....Arr. by Peter Wilhousky

IRON HORSE.....JEFFERSON HIGH SCHOOL

Rivers, corduroy roads, and pack trails were inadequate transportation for the growth of a mighty empire. The West needed the manufactured products of the East; the East needed the resources of the vast West. How to bring the two together? Certainly the ox-cart, stage coach, and pony express could not do the job, although heroic attempts had been made. Visionary Yankees for years had dreamed of a railroad spanning the continent. President Lincoln signed the enabling act for a transcontinental railroad in 1862. Feverish activity attended the building of the Union Pacific west from the Mississippi Valley and the Central Pacific east from the Pacific coast. The two met with great fanfare and ceremony at Promontory Point, Utah, in 1869, and at last the Iron Horse chugged across the continent, uniting two domains.

Choral Director.....Merle C. Lotz
 Orchestra Director.....Charles F. Bradford
 Dramatics Director.....Melba Sparks
 Narrator.....James Cranna
 Old-Time Orchestra.....Marie Eicher, Gayle Edwards,
 Beverly Downing, Janice Rasmussen, Ted Browning

Drill Ye Terriers.....Thomas Casey
 Arkansas Traveler.....*American Folk Song*
 My Home's in Montana.....*Song of the Plains*
 Night Herding Song.....*Cowboy Song*

POWER

Modern prophets early in the building of the West predicted that this new empire would in time rival the East as a manufacturing area. That prediction is now true with the fulfillment of power development. Winter snows stored in the mountains and seasonal rains continue to keep tumbling streams flowing from high elevations downward toward the sea. Roaring waterways have been harnessed to work for man. Electric energy so generated glides silently and swiftly to the most remote hamlet, the isolated farm, the small town, and the city, enriching living and lightening labor by bringing to them the "white coal" of the West. The plentiful power potential of the West has focused the attention of the nation to this area, bringing about a re-discovery of the Oregon Trail.

Roll on Columbia, Roll On.....Woodie Guthrie
All Creatures of Our God and King.....St. Francis of Assisi

WITH A SONG ON THEIR LIPS.....Entire Cast

For untold centuries, man has expressed his moods by music. The pent-up inner surges of action find their release in music. The warrior used music to prepare him for fortitude in battle. Those in slavery and bondage have given to the world their songs of lament and sorrow. Music prepares us for and is a part of our plan in devotion and spiritual communication. Music in the form of love lyrics is well known to all generations of all peoples. Music can thrill man, inspire him, lift him from despondency, soothe him, persuade him. Music is as important to man as life itself. Each to his own taste—whether the cathedral organ, the symphonic choir, the philharmonic orchestra, the military band, the radio or juke box, or other form of man-made music. Others find release in the crescendo of the storm, the tinkling of the brook, the murmur of the sea shore, the crooning of the winds, the sighing of the forests, or the plaintive songs of nature's own creatures of the wild. Yes, music is as important to man as life itself.

Dramatics Director.....Marie Churchill,

Portland Civic Theatre

Choral Procession from "Song of Man".....Kountz

Sixth General Session

Tuesday, March 1, 9:30 A.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Organ Prelude: Glenn A. Shelley, Organist, Radio Station KOIN, Portland, Oregon

Presiding: James D. Logsdon, Superintendent, Thornton Township High Schools and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois; Second Vice President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Platform Guests: Secretaries and Coordinators of State Associations of Secondary-School Principals

Invocation: The Reverend Martin Thielen, Director of Education, Archdiocese of Portland, Portland, Oregon

Music: Choir, North Salem Senior High School, Salem, Oregon; enrollment, 1,745; Howard F. Miller, Director; E. A. Carleton, Principal

Address:

THE IMPERATIVE NEED FOR ECONOMIC EDUCATION

G. KEITH FUNSTON

WHEN one thinks about the challenges facing educators today, the first thing that is apparent is how great the stakes are. I don't have to emphasize the extraordinary, exhilarating, and terribly dangerous period through which we are living. Whether we are going to get through this period with our bodies and our souls intact seems to me to be in no small part a measure of the challenge which has been flung at your educators.

This is a truly awesome responsibility—and in some ways it is a new one. For too many years we received our educations with little more in mind than the *personal* advantages that education would bring us. A person went to school to enlarge his capacities—to enjoy life more fully, to make more money, to reach higher in the world. If he succeeded, that was his personal good fortune; if he failed, that was his personal loss.

Few people now would weigh the challenge to education by personal and individual standards alone. Throughout the world we are engaged in a contest which has entirely altered the criteria by which we must judge education. This was highlighted for me last week when a group of Russian politicians came, at their specific request, to visit the Stock Exchange. It seemed to me that their leader and spokesman came not so much to listen and learn as to make propaganda designed to mislead the

G. Keith Funston is President of the New York Stock Exchange, New York, New York.

American people. This same technique is being used all over the world. It requires a collectively well-educated people to discern and counter this strategy both at home and abroad.

As President Eisenhower said to a group of foreign educators at the White House last fall, "... we need to put new ideas—and more of them—into orbit." But if these ideas are to get off the ground, much less stay aloft, we must understand that our classrooms are our most important launching platforms. A people which trifles with its schooling today is jeopardizing not only its chances for success, but for survival as well.

EDUCATION IN AMERICA: SUCCESS IN QUANTITY; QUESTION MARK IN QUALITY

I am sure that no one here would disagree. But how well has education responded to this challenge? From one point of view the answer is comforting. The statistics are impressive. More Americans go to school today than ever before. Nearly one in every four is currently adding to his formal education. In the traditional "school years," the achievement is even more striking. Ninety-eight per cent of our 7 to 13 year-olds are in school; so are 85 per cent of our 13 to 17 year-olds. Meanwhile, the proportion of high-school graduates going on to college is rising steadily. It was 35 per cent twenty years ago. It is 53 per cent today. And by 1970 there will be at least 6 million college students—double the amount enrolled today.

Many people, looking at these figures, would be tempted to conclude that our educational achievement has been a "whopping success." To them I would say: first, *it had better be*. And second, *is it really?*

As the president of a small college and then as the president of a large institution which is also concerned with education, I have learned painfully that a people can emerge from the long educational process and still be woefully uninformed in areas of the most urgent importance—unprepared to cope with the problems of today, much less the ideas of tomorrow.

We have seen this very recently in regard to a subject we now acknowledge to be absolutely indispensable for our survival—science. For years we permitted our high-school graduates to gain their diplomas while remaining, many of them, mathematical know-nothings, with only a speaking acquaintance with modern chemistry and physics. We awoke with a jolt to the impossibility of allowing that kind of illiteracy to continue. But now, I submit, a similar illiteracy exists in another area of great importance—economics and its relation to the world in which we live.

I doubt that it is necessary to spell out at any length why economic understanding is so vital. Merely to list the great questions facing us as a nation is to tick off a series of major economic problems. For example, how will America resolve the question of inflation? What will be its role in the drama of the developing nations? What are we going to do about the problems posed by agriculture, labor, business?

Undoubtedly much of our long-range capacity to survive hinges on the answers given to these questions. But how will our answers be arrived at? From what vantage point does a person decide? Has he a background of information and understanding that helps him determine what makes sense and what does not, what is good economics and what is bad? Or will his opinion be shaped by that odd mixture of hearsay, prejudice, and stereotype which passes, in so many peoples' minds, for economic knowledge?

AMERICA'S ECONOMIC ILLITERACY: "THE NINTH WONDER OF THE WORLD"

The answers to the questions are not at all reassuring. At the Stock Exchange, we have come into firsthand contact with the range of knowledge—the economic literacy—of a broad cross-section of the American people. That knowledge, not to mince words, is often shockingly inadequate. Seven years ago, for example, we set out to find just how many adults could more or less define what is meant by a "common stock." We learned that less than one quarter of the adult population understood that basic term.

Now, of course, I am not suggesting that a knowledge of common stocks is the touchstone of economic literacy. But the lack of familiarity with securities does dramatize a disturbing problem. If only a quarter of our population knows something as personally meaningful as the ABC's of investments, what percentage do you suppose understands the basic principles of how a free economy works, or how it evolves and grows? As one well-known financial writer has commented: "The American economy is the eighth wonder of the world; the ninth wonder is the economic ignorance of the American people."

Let me add, however, that we should not be completely discouraged by this illiteracy. It does not stem from any profound and insoluble problem. *It is mainly the consequence of a simple fact—that we do not teach economics.* If we are a nation of economic know-nothings, it is because no one has ever bothered to explain the subject to us.

Consider, for a moment, these 1951 figures—which I might add are, unfortunately, the latest available and which certainly should be brought up to date through a new study.

Of the 9,240,000 students enrolled in the nation's high schools, only about 4 per cent were *ever* expected to take a course in economics.

In the nation as a whole, only one state, Oregon, our host state today, had made economics a requisite for high-school graduation.

Finally, for every student who took economics in high school, six took a foreign language, eight took music, and *nineteen took physical education.*

This is some indication of the low regard in which economics has been held by education. I am aware, of course, that you educators are much concerned about this. You recognize, too, that very little has apparently been accomplished in recent years. The number of students taking economics shows no discernible upward trend. The level of economic illiteracy among them remains virtually unchanged.

IS TEACHING ECONOMICS "TOO TOUGH?"

Why has improvement failed to come? I wonder if the answer doesn't lie in the story told about an executive who was known for his passion for order. On this man's antiseptically clean desk was an array of baskets for his papers. One read "In." One read "Out." Another was labelled "Urgent." But the one with the biggest pile of all had the sign "Too Tough."

Is economics "too tough" to be taught at the high-school level? Let me try to answer that. As you know, the Stock Exchange and its Member Firms have been engaged in a broad program of adult education ever since we first became aware of the public's lack of information. Through newspapers, magazines, television, and radio, and through courses held at schools, libraries, and other meeting places, we have been trying not to "sell" common stock or bonds but to *explain* the opportunities, risks, and rewards that go with ownership of securities. Partly as a result of this effort, we have seen the number of shareowners almost double since 1952—from 6½ million to 12½ million. Equally important, we find an overwhelming majority of investors in the market for the right reasons and with sound goals. But, of even greater significance to educators, we have witnessed an encouraging rise in the degree of interest in and literacy about the investing process. A new survey, soon to be released by the Exchange, will document this in fascinating detail.

Of course, you may say, "That's all very well for *adults*. But we have to deal with adolescents." Let me tell you then about two successful ways in which economics has been presented to youngsters.

The first concerns an elementary school in Kalamazoo. The wall of the school building cracked and a construction crane with its owner-operator arrived to make the necessary repairs. One teacher, who had attended an economic education workshop, decided to put the occasion to use. She took her pupils—who were in the *second grade*—and explained to them how the crane could, in half a day, do a job that would require weeks by hand. After she had interested her pupils in the productive power of machinery, she asked them how they thought the crane-owner had bought his expensive machine. That led to a simple explanation of how a business is financed and money raised. From there it was only a step to explaining how the money that people saved and invested was put to work. Later on, after hearing these second-grade pupils discussing the economic consequences of the crack in their school building, one college economist

exclaimed: "She's teaching capital formation to second-grade kids—a concept I have a rough time drumming into my college freshmen!"

In another instance, the teacher of a senior class in the Nyack (New York) High School decided to bring economics "home" by suggesting that his class participate in the economic process itself. He proposed that each student ante up 50 cents and that the class invest the proceeds. This led to an enthusiastic search for the right company—and an equally enthusiastic discovery of the range and variety of American industry. Finally one corporation was chosen to be the agent of destiny for the class fund of \$18—which was just enough to buy one share of the company's stock. But that was only the beginning. Now the class had to find out how current developments—taxes and tariffs, competition and even fiscal policy—were going to affect *their* company. Economics was not "too tough" for those students. It was their most exciting course. It was made more so, incidentally, when the president of the company heard about the experiment and came to the school to conduct an annual meeting and answer questions for this special group of owners. This simple technique of teaching youngsters by doing, I might add, is being duplicated in many high schools across the country. A few weeks ago, a workshop for teachers was held at Nyack to explore this experiment in detail. This conference may well prove to be the start of a new interest in the way economics can be brought to life. I hope the Nyack idea—and the teachers' workshop that grew out of it—will spread from coast to coast.

All this has, I think, a moral. If economics has traditionally been considered "too tough," a large part of the trouble lies in the fact that we haven't always taught it too well—as evidenced by your Association's sponsorship of the Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education, which seeks to upgrade the level of economic literacy. And if I may generalize from the few examples I have offered, I think we can see how to teach it better. I am encouraged to make these suggestions before the National Association of Secondary-School Principals, because you have traditionally taken a far-sighted view of the problems facing education, and have done much to exercise leadership in bringing about necessary changes.

First, *we must make economics real*. It is certainly difficult to make a youngster's heart beat faster about concepts so abstract as productivity or investment. But it is easy to stir his imagination about a machine, or about an individual enterprise in which he may own a tiny share. In other words, the over-all theory of economics should be taught only *after* economics has been made as personal as something we touch or as something we do.

Second, *economics should be imbued with some of the excitement of life*. We must not be afraid, by the same token, to make economics controversial. By this I most emphatically do *not* mean that we should "slant" economics teaching. But it is surely a greater disservice to make

believe that diverse points of view do not exist, or that economics is not one of the great, legitimate, continuing debates of a free society.

We can bring that debate directly into our schools by inviting into the classroom, from our own communities, people whose backgrounds lie in government, business, labor unions, and agriculture. We can further enrich the subject by supplementing the standard textbooks with some of the more thoughtful material available from these groups. Needless to say, the *source* of such material should be clearly indicated. In our own case, we have been heartened by the enthusiastic response of over 7,000 fifth-to twelfth-grade teachers who have used our series, "You and the Investment World," in their classrooms. May I add, also, that the texts prepared by your Council for the Advancement of Secondary Education are available—and I would certainly urge you to make wide use of them. Finally, we can teach economics from that greatest and most readily available of all textbooks—the daily newspaper. From first page to last, there is not a section of a newspaper in which a skilled teacher cannot find examples of economics at work.

BETTER-EQUIPPED TEACHERS MUST MAKE ECONOMICS A PART OF LIFE

I believe that if we taught economics in this manner, it would not be "too tough." But I suggest there is a second reason why our economic education has fallen short of the mark. To come directly to the point, it is because too often the wrong people are teaching it.

In the files of our education department at the Stock Exchange is a letter I would like to read to you.

* * * * *

Dear Sirs:

I am teaching a course in Economics to a small group of High School Seniors. This is my first experience in the field. I am a Band Director by profession, and I would appreciate any material you have that would benefit my students or myself.

* * * * *

I do not decry the effort of a band director to teach economics. Rather, I am happy that the need to teach such a course was recognized and that steps were taken to accomplish it. Nor do I claim that all economics teachers are band directors. But I think it is fair to say that most high-school principals would rather have a band leader teach economics than an economist lead their band.

In economics, as in any other field, it takes careful training to do the job right. The person for whom economics really is "too tough" is the teacher who has no adequate preparation. And the fact is that economics is too important to be taught by "anybody."

What can we do about this? There are four things I would like to suggest:

First, *assign specific responsibility for having the subject taught properly*. Economics has been an orphan of the curriculum for too long. It cannot remain so. The subject needs the planning, and guidance, that any important discipline requires. You will find that the people within your community—taxpayers, parents, civic and business people—will respond enthusiastically when they realize the steps you are taking. Moreover, I believe that responsibility for teaching economics must be assumed not only at the local level by a department or a group of your teachers, but at the state and national levels as well. For instance, I would hope that an organization such as the National Council for the Social Studies will take the unqualified position that the teaching of economics is something to which they have to devote major attention.

Second, *we must recruit qualified teachers to do the job*. You can take a major step here simply by being sure that those assigned to teach the subject have a lively interest in it and have had college-level economics courses. Also, you can point out the availability of effective and inexpensive teaching aids—and see to it that they are used properly. You may well reply that all this is fine, but attracting better teachers means paying higher salaries. I quite agree. And I believe you will find a larger measure of local support once it becomes known that you have a down-to-earth purpose such as this.

Third, *teaching techniques can be vastly improved*. I have mentioned a few of the vivid, often exciting, ways that economics can be brought into the classroom. Why not, then, encourage your economics teachers to attend one of the many in-service workshops that are exploring ways to throw fresh light on what too many people feel is a dull subject. With imaginative assistance, your teachers will do the expert job of which we know they are capable.

Finally, *I believe we must make economics compulsory for all students*. This does not mean piling the subject into a one-year required history course. Such courses already contain more than the student can absorb, or the teacher teach. Rather, I refer to the example Oregon and some school districts around the country have set. They require a separate course in economics study as a requisite for high-school graduation. Or, as an alternative, economics should be included as an essential element in an expanded two- or three-year history course.

This is certainly not too ambitious a program. In fact, the only serious obstacles in its way could be our failure to *acknowledge* that the problem exists, or to be serious about solving it.

If I may summarize the points I've wanted to stress:

First, widespread economic illiteracy is a weakness which must be recognized when assessing the nation's educational system.

Second, this weakness stems more from neglect than from any other single factor.

Third, the means exist to correct that weakness by strengthening our

teaching standards and introducing economics into the classroom as a part of life, rather than as something *apart* from life.

Finally, may I conclude on a personal note. Fourteen years ago, in my inaugural talk at Trinity College, I remarked to the effect that: "We must not hesitate to teach things which will prove useful in later life. Rather, we must attempt to give a man background and breadth . . . so that he can bring to a profession, or to a specific job, a viewpoint and an approach which will increase his effectiveness both as a wage earner and as a citizen."

Fourteen years later, it seems to me that this comment, directed at college students, is all the more pertinent when applied to the educational needs of high-school students—many of whom will have no further opportunity for formal education. This is a challenge to education which we can and must meet if, as President Eisenhower has urged, we are to succeed, in our time, in putting new ideas into orbit.

Address:

YOUTH LEADERSHIP—OPPORTUNITY OR RESPONSIBILITY

ADIN HESTER

Presentation: Award to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals by the National Council of the Boy Scouts of America

WHAT is this thing called leadership? To me, it is the ability of an individual to assume responsibility with dependability, to recognize challenging problems and opportunities and take advantage of them, and to recognize the rights of others and respect their contributions regardless of how minor they might be.

Leadership is apparent in every individual to some extent. Whether in the classroom, on the athletic field, in the home or the community, the ability to cooperate with others and contribute something to a group: this is leadership. Young people must have an opportunity to seek responsibility. The grade school—springboard for education—starts this massive machine of development into action.

Perhaps the first taste of leadership starts during the years of primary education. While attending grade school, the young student does not realize his potential or what lies on the horizon in future years, but certainly grade school is the place for receiving fundamentals. If we were constructing a house, it would be the laying of the foundation before putting up the walls and finally the roof. How well these funda-

Adin Hester of Oregon State College, Corvallis, Oregon, is Past National President of the Future Farmers of America.

mentals are taught, how well they are learned is going to govern to a great extent the future abilities and potentials of youth in the places of secondary education.

For teachers to succeed in their task, however, parents must realize that education and training must start even earlier. This was emphasized by the late Francis Wayland Parker, the great Chicago educator. When he had completed one of his famous lectures a woman asked him, "How early can I begin the education of my child?"

"When will your child be born?" was the reply.

"Born?" she gasped. "Why, he is already five years old!"

Dr. Parker replied, "My goodness woman, don't stand here talking to me. Hurry home; already you have lost the best five years."

The first really major stepping stones to success and happiness are found in the high school. The studies and activities, both intercurricular and extracurricular, start to draw the student out of his own little environment. Now he or she is beginning to visualize a few of the opportunities that are available immediately and in the future.

At this point in education it is of utmost importance to impress upon these young people, *first*, that they have a definite responsibility in life. A responsibility for becoming the future leaders and citizens of our country.

Secondly, every person regardless of race, color, or creed has certain God-given talents, and it is a challenge to the individual to develop the best that is within him or her. This challenge, however, sometimes requires stimulation. The student's eyes must be opened to every opportunity offered in high school. Naturally, the curriculum should receive primary attention. Subjects such as English, mathematics, history, and government have a much deeper meaning, and greater utility to the student, than he believes. He must be shown. For example, English goes farther than teaching what a noun, a verb, or a conjunction might be. The greater portion of every individual's life is going to be spent in communication, either by writing, reading, or talking. How can we communicate properly if we don't grasp the basic fundamentals of English? Similarly, mathematics, besides instruction in addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division, is an excellent means to reasoning in a logical, orderly fashion.

As for history and government, these are more than a collection of names and dates. No one can really appreciate the free society in which we live until its history is known. The sacrifices and hardships that were endured by the Pilgrims and the pioneers who forged their way West, the bloodshed of the Civil War, how our government was built from nothing to become one of the greatest ever known in the world—these we have to know for a true appreciation of America. These we also must know to realize again our duties and responsibilities to our homes, communities, and country.

Here I again return to this thing called leadership. Our nation from the very beginning has been blessed with some of the greatest leadership

man has ever known. In America, rank, birth, or station in life make little difference in the development of individual abilities. Leadership has been demanded and demonstrated in every walk of life—agriculture, science, business, education, religion, and government.

Young people should also be aware of the youthful leadership that our country and the world has known in the years gone by. Many of the greatest leaders civilization has ever known, has ever seen, never reached 40 years of age. To illustrate this point, Tennyson wrote his first volume at eighteen; Alexander was a mere youth when he rolled back the Asiatic hordes that threatened to overwhelm European civilization almost at its birth; Napoleon conquered Italy at twenty-five; Newton made some of his greatest scientific discoveries before he was twenty-five; it has been said that no English poet ever equalled Chatterton at twenty-one; and Victor Hugo wrote a tragedy at fifteen.

America is going to continue to be a great nation, rich in opportunity, only if we have a constant supply of capable young leaders who can accept responsibility and can step to the driver's position without faltering.

We are fortunate in having many fine youth organizations which are in turn producing some very capable leaders. Some of these include 4H, Future Homemakers, Boy Scouts, church groups and so on down a very long list.

One particular group that comes to mind as doing outstanding work in these areas of leadership and citizenship is the Future Farmers of America. Here is an organization that has dedicated itself not only to producing technically proficient farmers, but also some of the finest agricultural leadership ever known. These young rural people have learned to accept responsibility and pursue challenging opportunities. Every activity in which they engage exemplifies their creed, which states in part, "We believe in leadership from ourselves and respect from others." This is just one example of the many fine qualities gained from working together for the common good of all.

Another aspect of leadership might be said to be the three I's. These three qualities, *Imagination*, *Initiative*, and *Ingenuity*, are nurtured by leadership. We, as Americans, have successfully met every crisis in our history with these qualities, and I am certain that the three I's will be our answer to future challenges. These qualities are cultivated by our democratic society. They might be classed as the bread and butter of our free enterprise system. But only leadership can bring them to full fruition.

It would be entirely superfluous of me to remind this group that today's youth are tomorrow's leaders, or that America's hope for the future rests upon our success in training young people to accept leadership responsibility. The National Association of Secondary-School Principals, in convention here in the heart of the Pacific Northwest Wonderland, is perhaps the most influential and knowledgeable group concerned directly with youth leadership training. You are, in every sense of the word,

shaping America's future. Upon your shoulders, more than any others, rests the burden of meeting the greatest need for *good* leadership our nation has ever known. To you the word "inspiration" is neither meaningless nor old-fashioned.

I'm sure you are familiar with the story of the man who decided to question three workmen busily chipping away at rough blocks of stone to be used in the construction of a magnificent building. The man's question was simple, direct, and to the point—"What are you doing?" The replies, however, were as varied as the attitudes of the workmen. The first one merely answered, "I'm cutting stone"; the second said, "I'm making four dollars an hour"; but the third workman, with a smile of assurance reflecting pride in his job replied, "I'm building a cathedral." Each of the answers given by these men was different and there was only one who had the total picture in mind; only one could see his real purpose and visualize the ultimate goal.

The moral of this story certainly has a challenge for educators engaging in shaping America's future. How you chip, hew, and mold the rough product is going to determine, to a large extent, how much of the talent that is hidden in every student will be exposed. You must inspire and encourage, and, most of all, you must impart the vision of a goal that is realistic and intriguing.

The task of imparting goals is difficult indeed. For one thing, the ability of individual students varies so widely that any attempt to set the same goals for everybody is going to cause acute frustration for some. There can be a great loss here if we fail to realize that many students who are not scholars of highest caliber can, when properly trained and properly inspired, become accomplished specialists and capable leaders in many highly useful fields of endeavor.

At the same time, we also realize that goals change dramatically with the times. It seems as though everyone today has an obsession to see who can reach the moon first with a living specimen of the human race. We worry that Russia will be first and Russia worries over our potentialities in space. Consequently, the educational system is in an uproar, and suddenly every student should be a brilliant scientist or mathematician to help achieve the ultimate goal of being the first on the moon.

Quite frankly, I have become attached to Mother Earth and am well satisfied to be one of her inhabitants. Secondly, I have no desire to go to the moon. Let the Russians be first. The more Russians who go to the moon and stay there, the less our troubles will be here on earth.

Seriously, the point that I want to make is that relatively few of the students in our classrooms across the nation are capable of becoming scientists and math wizards. Some are interested in making livestock grow and crops produce. They should be encouraged to pursue their interests in agriculture. The same can be said for the areas of music, art, literature, government, and many other occupations where the talents and interests of many individuals are naturally centered. Encouragement of these students will produce a much more desirable

society. Failure to encourage them and provide them with realistic goals could be disastrous. Our educational system must not become biased. It must reflect and serve the need for leadership in *every* field.

Regardless of individual interests, the importance of furthering one's education must be emphasized. Past belief was that a high-school diploma was sufficient for success. Today high school has become a stepping stone to higher education.

The importance of college cannot be over-emphasized for those who seek to broaden themselves with additional knowledge. But a college education is difficult for those who are not blessed financially, and is an almost impossible goal for those whose academic qualifications fail to measure up to conventional scholastic standards.

Here, again, faulty goals can cost the nation leadership in vital places. We can still recall to advantage the example of great leaders who started with nothing but ambition and perseverance, and who either educated themselves or succeeded without the advantages of formal education.

We must, on the one hand, hold forth the goal of higher education, and we must inspire more and more students to seek it. Yet at the same time, we need desperately to prevent this goal from frustrating those for whom it is completely unattainable. Is it trite or impractical or false to teach that in a democracy such as ours where there is truly opportunity for all? I do not think so. I do not think it is trite or impractical or false to teach students about the ragged and unschooled boy who rose to become the railsplitter, the country storekeeper, the small town lawyer, the advocate of a great cause, the exemplar of individual liberty under the law, the great American president, the emancipator of a race, the defender and preserver of the Union.

Lincoln's opportunities were few compared with those that lie before today's youth. The means, the resources, and the knowledge are present to create leaders in every field and to find productive use for the abilities, however modest, of every individual. Let us not confuse our opportunities by biased or short-sighted or narrowly conceived goals. The responsibility of youth leadership rests upon recognition of *every* opportunity. Whether or not we shall continue to be a great and proud nation depends, to a large extent, upon our ability to provide inspiration for the many, not the few.

Luncheon Meeting

Tuesday, March 1, 12:00 NOON-2:00 P.M.

GRAND BALLROOM, MULTNOMAH

Junior High-School Luncheon

This was arranged especially for junior high-school administrators, but it was open to all. The dining space was filled with almost 500 persons in attendance.

Presiding: William T. Gruhn, Professor of Education, University of Connecticut, Storrs, Connecticut; Chairman, Committee on Junior High-School Education of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Address:

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL—YESTERDAY AND TOMORROW

MELVIN W. BARNES

SOMEbody warned that it's risky to talk about the past because anyone who does is likely to be talking to persons who are older or wiser than he and who are able to understand better. He concluded that a safer thing to do is to talk about the future because what will happen in the future is anybody's guess. The present assignment obviously requires consideration of both the past and the future. In the observance of its golden anniversary, the American junior high school deserves attention both for its solid contribution and for its promising prospect.

A TIME OF GROWTH

As we turn to the past and look back over the road we have traveled, we are struck with the fact that the outstanding characteristic of American education has been growth. Our nation has been expanding so fast that we have scarcely had time to do more than take care of the vast numbers of children knocking on the schoolhouse doors. As a result, we have not been able to do the research necessary to get the facts on which our practices ought to be based. Crash programs are an old story with us. That is why, in some respects, our educational structure resembles one of our rockets, one that is built with an army first-stage, an airforce second-stage, and a civilian nose cone. In education, as in rocketry, we simply have not had enough time to plan and design. We have been too busy handling the urgent problems of growth.

Melvin W. Barnes is Superintendent of Schools, Oklahoma City Public Schools, Oklahoma City, Oklahoma.

As we stop to take stock of the junior high school at the end of its first half century, the pressures of growth show no sign of relenting; they are going to be with us at least for some years to come.

YESTERDAY

The history of the junior high school spans only five decades. Any biographical sketch of the institution has to take account of the era which gave rise to it and has been served by it. The junior high is a creature of its times. Several years ago William Van Til sketched a portrait of the junior high school, picturing "Junior" as the offspring of Senior High-School father and Elementary-School mother—a child of rapid growth who is now coming of age, developing self-understanding and making a place for himself in the School System family. Van Til pointed out that Junior was the first of this family to be born in America.

As everybody knows the junior high school appeared on the scene some fifty years ago emerging in response to the demands of the times. A few comments will remind us of the more relevant features of those times.

Early in the present century, even as today, our nation was becoming increasingly urban and industrial. One third of our population was either foreign born or of parents who were. The need for citizenship education was pressing. It was a time of westward expansion and of heavy population growth in eastern cities where perhaps one fifth of the children aged 10 to 15 were employed. Economic depressions, new social problems, urban concentration, inter-cultural friction and unrest in labor-management relations were characteristic forces operating to influence the course of the public schools. In this context of change, a special kind of school was needed for large numbers of youth who in early adolescence stepped out of school directly into the labor market.

Demand for Change

In 1910 the times called for a school program in the middle grades that prepared for vocations, provided for citizenship education, and taught an understanding of social problems. A school was needed that could organize differently and teach differently to the end that individual differences as to ability and interest might be recognized and cultivated. The climate of change that characterized the social scene naturally affected education. Numerous blueprints for the remodeling of schools appeared in that day much as they are appearing today.

In large measure the junior high school came into being as a reaction against the presumed failures of the eight-four plan. The origins of the eight-four pattern are obscure but apparently traceable to European sources. By 1910 there had developed in this country general acceptance of this plan. While this pattern has been widespread and there are still many evidences of the structure, it is now, as you know, on the way out. About seventy-five per cent of the boys and girls in secondary education in the United States today are in organizational patterns that are six-six, six-three-three, or something different from the eight-four plan.

Reactions against the eight-four plan were rather prominent during the decade of the 1890's. There were several committees—the Committee of Ten, the Committee of Fifteen, the Committee on College Entrance Requirements—all of which questioned the prolongation of elementary education, all of which were interested in greater retention of pupils in school and worried about the problem of dropouts, and some of which were especially interested in getting youth into college at an earlier age. President Eliot of Harvard, for example, was saying that in his opinion the freshman class entering Harvard were older than they should have been and that learning time was being wasted. If you are interested in a concise record of these developments turn to the first chapter of Gruhn and Douglass, *The Modern Junior High School*.

How an Idea Spreads

Ideas in education spread in interesting ways. It might be instructive to digress for a moment just to note one example. A good instance is found in the grade structure that is such a prominent feature of schools today.

The idea of a graded school was practically unknown until just a little more than a hundred years ago. During the seventeenth century a graded organization was almost unheard of.

In 1848, however, the Quincy Grammar School opened with a feature added: the grade structure. The inventors of this scheme were so proud of their creation and so enthusiastic about the idea of organization based on grades that they predicted that the idea would influence American education for fifty years to come.

The Quincy Grammar School was held in a four-story building with an organizational structure that provided for classification of pupils by grades, graded instruction, graded materials, the introduction of certain materials at certain ages, and so on. This was not all completely new, of course, but it can be said that a truly graded school appeared only as late as 1848, to set the pattern for the intervening 112 years and perhaps far into the future. Thus does an idea appear and diffuse in American education.

The First Junior High Schools

At the beginning of the twentieth century, the reaction which had been building up against the eight-four graded plan during the decades of the 1890's resulted in a breaking away from that pattern. In the school year of 1909-10, new forms of organization appeared. Richmond, Indiana, had set aside the seventh and eighth grades as early as 1898. This was not only an organizational change; they made some alterations in their teaching program which was a portent of something new and different. In September 1909, Columbus, Ohio, set aside grades seven, eight, and nine as a separate organizational unit, the purpose of which was not only to accommodate numbers, but also to provide a different kind of program, one that would meet some of the criticisms of the extended elementary

school found in the eight-four plan. A little later on, in January 1910, Berkeley, California, opened two schools known as "introductory high schools" which attempted to serve in new and different ways the needs of boys and girls in grades seven, eight, and nine.

It should be noted that these new organizational forms were not intended primarily to accommodate increased numbers of children, although that consideration figured in, but were designed to serve the needs, interests, and abilities of early adolescents in ways that the prevailing programs had failed to do. The emphasis was upon a different kind of teaching to serve new purposes. Particularly, educators were alarmed about the high percentage of dropouts below the tenth grade. There was a conviction that the school was failing as much as the youth. One cause of concern was the great gulf between elementary and secondary curricula caused by lack of continuity and articulation in both subject matter and methods.

Spokesmen for a new kind of program (L. V. Koos and T. H. Briggs are examples) argued that the junior high school could bridge the gap, retain more students in school and prepare the early leavers for work and citizenship responsibilities. Departmentalized subject matter came in partly as a means of overcoming retardation. It made possible promotion by individual subjects. When the junior high school appeared on the scene, new knowledge of the psychology of adolescence and of individual differences was rapidly developing and filtering into the stream of educational thought. It was the age of G. Stanley Hall. Adolescence was coming into its own as a subject of psychological study. Such devices as elective courses were justified as a means of handling the individual differences that emerge in early adolescence.

The Decade of the Twenties

Although the idea of the junior high school spread after 1910, it really got going as an organizational form in the 1920's. Undoubtedly our rapid growth as a nation and the need to accommodate increasing numbers of pupils in the secondary schools were major factors in inducing change. There was a shortage of buildings. Times were prosperous. A spirit of growth and expansion was in the air. Research added slowly to the accumulation of facts as to what early adolescents were really like. Increasing numbers came to school and stayed. Cultural and economic developments were potent influences. Child labor laws, for example, practically eliminated the vocational emphasis of the junior high-school program. In the 1920's it became clear that the new institution had won its place and was here to stay.

TODAY

What is the junior high school doing for the present generation of early adolescents? As you travel across the country and see sprawling new school plants labelled "Junior High School," you know that in them will be found a physical setting for performing a distinctive kind of teaching

task. They contain special instructional materials and equipment for such subjects as industrial arts, science, and homemaking as well as provision for experiences in libraries, music rooms, and gymnasiums that were never characteristic of the eight-grade elementary school. Guidance services, special education, and student activities are common characteristics. The more innovative and venturesome programs reveal teaching that employs a problems approach, general education practices that recognize the unity and continuity of subject matter, and so on. These characteristics are quite in the center of our expectation of junior high schools.

Our educational system is currently showing disposition to vary and change in the middle grades perhaps more than in those above and below. When more imaginative practices are tried, the junior high school is likely to try them. It has become our best proving ground for creative teaching ideas.

The junior high school can afford to be different and adaptable. It is insulated from the college influence by the senior high-school grades. Its pupils are exploring, experimenting persons who require a school fitted to their developmental needs.

As we look at the task of the junior high school in the days ahead, we are staggered by the tremendous difficulties of the job it is asked to do. When we stop to think about the psychological complexity of the material with which we deal in junior high school, that alone is enough to shake our confidence in deciding the directions we ought to take. But if one will just relax and look steadily at the junior high school in its setting, certain aims and aspects stand out with considerable clarity.

Psychological Understanding

This is basic. The junior high school takes its shape in the light of the kinds of persons it is meant to serve. We are gradually getting together sufficient information about the characteristics of early adolescents to enable us to say with considerable assurance what early secondary education ought to be. More information is coming in. We have excellent studies and reports already in our files and libraries, such as the U. S. Office of Education publication of February 1955, entitled *Strengths and Weaknesses of the Junior High School*. This is a report of a national conference on the junior high school, its problems, its curriculum, and its future. It contains an excellent address by Paul Elicker. In this publication, Fritz Redl calls attention to several concepts that are illuminating. The first of these is the concept of "organismic disorganization." Through this idea, Redl explains some of the reasons why the pupils whom we attempt to serve in junior high school are often so difficult to handle and to teach. Another concept that he uses is that of the "psychological break." This suggests what Havighurst has said about the developmental tasks, particularly the drive on the part of young adolescents to establish

themselves as independent human beings, to assume wider responsibility for their own actions, and to learn the masculine and feminine roles.

Ages 12 to 15 are popularly known as the great transition stage of life. The characteristic biological changes are obvious. Unevenness in rates of growth produces a strange assortment of shapes and sizes. Mental growth during this span is often inconsistent with its earlier pattern. Some boys and girls coast along mentally instead of making steady upward growth. Curves of mental development can be as varied as those of physical growth.

Redl tells junior high-school administrators to expect aggressive behavior, infantile phases, reduced attention span, day-dreaming, and restlessness at the junior high-school age. In early adolescence dependence on the "peer code" increases; sensitivity and oversuspiciousness are characteristic. Behavior of early adolescents can be so variable and bizarre that it resembles at times the behavior of markedly disturbed pupils of other ages.

The New York State study, *A Design for Early Secondary Education*, which was published by the State Education Department of New York in 1954, gave some important information about the growth curves of youth in the age range of 12 to 15. In some of the data that they analyzed, they found that three quarters of the boys and three fifths of the girls pass through a period of two to four years coinciding with early adolescent changes when there is almost no growth at all in mental age. They say, "In other words, the individual's earlier pattern of mental development seems to be for a time disrupted, often to be resumed again at age 16 or 17. If this is substantiated by further studies, it would lead to the conclusion that predicting eventual adult capacity is more difficult in the irregular period of adolescence than in the patterned years of six to ten." This has an obvious bearing on the identification of the gifted.

There have been some good studies made at the University of Texas concerning the ways in which adolescents acquire values from the peer group.

Psychologists interested in problems of juvenile delinquency note that delinquent behavior seems to reach a peak of incidence in the early teens and may be for many youngsters a normal step in achieving maturity. A study of the ways in which society thwarts adolescent social growth would reveal some reasons for delinquent behavior. Car-stealing, for example, is a favorite pastime of some early adolescents because in our society driving a car of one's own is one of the most obvious symbols of maturity. In one correctional institution, 80 per cent of the adolescent boys had been committed for the offense of stealing a car.

Speaking of the way in which our culture handles adolescence, McNassor says, "Something comparable to puberty rites, with definite form and a clean cut implication of new rights and social responsibilities should be instituted between the seventh and ninth grades. An example

would be definite roles to take in the community's social, political, and business life."

An investigation of the misbehavior of 500 children, aged seven to sixteen, apprehended by police in Oklahoma City showed that at age twelve there was a sudden increase in the number of offenses. The fourteen-and-fifteen-year-old group exceeded all other age groups in total apprehensions. After age fifteen, the number of apprehensions decreased. More than one half of the offenders were in grades seven, eight, and nine. Conspicuous among offenses committed were those of rebellion against adults. The study now under way at the University of Syracuse is apparently showing similar findings.

It must be said, of course, that the vast majority of early adolescents do not seriously misbehave or commit offenses against the law. Most of them conform well, work hard, and are eager to succeed at the task of growing up. For many of them these years are a golden age for learning. Our understanding of these has been illuminated by numerous studies such as those sponsored by the Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts.

Cultural and Social Changes

Changes occurring in our culture are producing changes in our youth. People are living beyond their depth socially. There is a thrust in the direction of more valued social zones and climates. Many who were born into humble life-situations are able to lift themselves through education and effort to higher social planes. The public school plays an important part in promoting this upward mobility. In every community there are different kinds of residential areas. Each family follows characteristic life-styles. Each has its own social reputation and position. In the school some semblance of the social rankings of the community is discernible.

Transition to adolescence places boys and girls in a new peer culture. Acceptance by age-mates takes on an increasing importance. It is a common experience in junior high school for students from lower-status families to gain the approval of middle-class students. Lower-class pupils who do not make the social grade are the ones who are likely to leave school before graduation, while the accepted ones, who are finding new values and new patterns of behaving, are quite likely to be retained and to be graduated.

We must conclude that the task of today's schools has to be seen as something more than giving youth selected items from the cultural heritage "to learn." Many youth in our schools today are caught between the compulsory attendance law and an information-centered, skill-centered program made up of what middle-class youth "need to know." Living in an age of change requires, above all, experience in solving problems. Whatever the future may hold for them, our youth will have to use their knowledge to find solutions to the problems of this rapidly shrinking planet.

In this age of change, adolescents, with the rest of us, inherit the problems that change creates. The adolescent himself is changing in some respects. He is taller and heavier than his father was at his age, possibly because he has a better balanced diet. He is more able, he will stay in school longer, he is maturing faster physically and socially. He goes out on dates younger, often at age twelve or thirteen. He will marry sooner.

The needs, concerns, interests, and abilities of adolescents are also changing. In the classroom they amaze teachers by their capacity for "multiple-attention." Parents are nonplussed by their children's ability to do homework while the record player or TV blares forth. They are responsive to a wider, more stimulating, and much more insistent environment.

TOMORROW

As one reads what the experts have to say about the future of the junior high school—its trends, its promising practices, the directions in which it may turn—there is unlimited possibility for selecting points of emphasis. I am simply going to pick out a few points that strike my fancy and comment on each.

Exploration

The concept of exploration has been a central, controlling aim of the junior high school for almost half a century and is still as basic as ever. But we are moving beyond the idea of exploration as embodied in elective and short-term courses that attempt to give students a brush with different subject fields in order to show them what information there is to be explored.

In handling the concept of exploration we have taken the narrow, logical view and have largely missed the point. As a result, our courses have consisted of little dabs of this and that. We have let pupils meander across a vast range of content, giving it the "once over lightly" with the result that our courses have often been dull and motivation has been stifled. In the junior high school of tomorrow, there will be more opportunity for pupils to do a creative kind of exploring that provides the possibility of developing a deep interest—that allows research-type learning, that lingers in one field long enough to foster and cultivate a deep desire to know. The superficial survey of a subject field is not an adequate concept of exploration.

In the future we are going to pay more attention to the matter of helping the student to explore himself. We are beginning to understand the importance of developing an adequate self-concept and of recognizing the job of the school in helping the pupil to know his own assets and liabilities and how to live with them. Nobody is born with a concept of self. The self is a social product based on maturation. The infant gradually learns the parts of his own body. He finds he has a name of

his own. He becomes aware of himself as an influence on others and of them as an influence on him. As he interacts with age-mates, he extends his perceptions. By the time he reaches puberty, he is a member of various sub-societies formed by home, school, friends, and groups restricted to one sex. Each group has its norms; each association conditions the attitudes of its members. Conflicting group identifications can be so strong that they produce emotional breakdown.

Normally, the quality of relationship at home and school, the feelings between parent and child, the degree of identification with various persons combine to give the maturing personality his concept of himself. In this development, teachers play a large part. If a teacher thoughtlessly lets a pupil get the impression that he, the pupil, is stupid, he will soon see himself as a stupid person. Teachers are powerful determiners of the self-concept. To help the pupil to know and respect himself is an important task of teaching in the junior high school. With all of his exploring, he ought to have ample opportunity to explore himself.

The Problems Approach

A distinctive purpose of the junior high school is to help pupils solve problems—problems in the subject matter fields, problems in their school, problems in their personal lives. The problems approach in teaching has possibilities that have never been as well realized as recognized. Today it is becoming increasingly obvious that the race to remember facts was lost long ago. Kenneth Benne says that today we have to teach boys and girls what we don't know. In giving them the means to live successfully nobody has yet discovered any better bet than to teach boys and girls how to use with intelligence the facts that they meet in new situations and in novel problems. The junior high school has accepted this aim and in the future will take it even more seriously.

Herbert Thelen has just published an article discussing the triumph of *achievement* over *inquiry* in education. This is something to worry about. There is altogether too much pursuit of the memorizing-testing-forgetting cycle in our schools. Storing inert facts rather than doing independent, creative thinking has characterized too much of school-room activity.

Currently the emphasis on facts and skills is in the ascendancy. Blueprints for change in schools characteristically overstress the ground to be covered, the knowledge to be mastered, what pupils need to know. Testing programs reinforce this emphasis because we can easily measure these learnings with available tests. It seems to me that the new kinds of teaching equipment, language laboratories, for example, are designed to further the "facts and skills" objective. The only trouble with this emphasis is its narrowness. It leaves out too much. Let's give priority in time and attention to the cultivation of the higher mental processes. It is to the credit of the junior high school that traditionally it has done quite well in shouldering the responsibility for helping pupils to learn to handle problems.

It is heartening to see the concern for promoting a spirit of discovery in some of the experimental projects under way in the teaching of mathematics and science. I have in mind the efforts to foster a kind of teaching that lets pupils derive their own theorems and discover relationships for themselves. This is good. Let's keep the pressures to cover so much ground in so many days from smothering our ambition to cultivate a healthy spirit of curiosity and inquiry.

Guidance

The junior high school has always taken its guidance responsibility seriously. Some of the best guidance services to be found anywhere are those in junior high schools. But I think we are going to move beyond our present view of guidance which chronically suffers from being too limited and sometimes misdirected. Too often it is largely of the educational and vocational type. Teaching in the junior high schools should incorporate guidance at its very heart. Increasingly, we will use the guidance counselor to help the teacher to acquire guidance know-how. In the future we are going to find fewer schools in which the guidance counselor sits in splendid isolation in his office and waits for boys and girls to come to him in a clinical setting. I believe the guidance counselor's mission is mainly with the adults in the school. Only a classroom teacher can have close enough contact with pupils to build the relationship on which guidance can be built. Guidance should sink increasingly into the main stream of teaching.

This raises a serious question about departmentalization. Presently there is a trend toward increasing departmentalization in the junior high school and in some respects in the elementary school as well. Before moving in this direction, we ought to consider the inherent threat to the guidance program. Guidance rests on close acquaintance between pupils and teacher. An increase in the number of pupil-teacher contacts per day reduces the opportunity for at least one teacher to know each student well. I do not see how a highly departmentalized school can incorporate effective guidance of the kind junior high-school pupils need.

Arthur Combs has pointed out that we are beginning to understand that the experiences that influence boys and girls and become a part of them are the little things that build up with cumulative effect rather than the great dramatic and traumatic events that we tend to see as turning points in lives and careers. Individual interviews by counselors cannot get the guidance job done. In order to provide steady and continuous guidance, we are going to incorporate into our teaching an increasing number of projects in which students have the opportunity to do real planning, controlling, and managing for themselves so that they may try their hands and their heads at solving problems under adult supervision.

There is no sharp line of demarcation between teaching and guidance such as the widespread "separatist" philosophy of guidance has assumed. Good guidance and good teaching are almost identical. Much guidance

can be done in groups, and ought to be. Group guidance can be done most effectively in the classroom. Specialized guidance personnel can accomplish some of their best work by strengthening the competence of teachers in handling their guidance responsibilities. A primary requisite for a guidance counselor is a strong inclination to help teachers to understand the pupils they teach. Of course this takes real skill and confidence in working with fellow staff members.

Activities

The junior high school has achieved recognition for its development of student activities programs. There is no question as to the value of these activities. In the future, however, I think we increasingly are going to include these activities in the regular classroom program. Instead of having a science club that meets after school, we'll include such activities in the science class on the assumption that what is good in the science club would also be good in the science class. In other words, within the regular school day and in regular class time, we ought to provide for many of the experiences that are generally set apart and left for special periods or special times.

Staffing

One of the effects of establishing a separate junior high school has been to increase the ratio of men to women teachers. Some studies have shown that in elementary schools there is only one man in about every ten teachers, whereas in the junior high school the ratio is approximately two men out of five and in the senior high school about fifty-fifty. There is a consideration of status operating here. Many good junior high-school teachers are eager to transfer to the senior high school where the prestige is greater. How can we give the junior high school equal status with the senior high school?

Everybody seems to agree that junior high schools lack an adequate supply of teachers specifically trained to teach in this distinctive program. We find too few teacher education institutions giving attention to this problem. It is our problem, too, because the pupil practitioner has the very practical task of providing the kind of in-service stimulation and growth that teachers need in order to become increasingly able in handling early adolescents.

Kimball Wiles has suggested that there are certain characteristics a junior high-school teacher ought to have. He suggests among others that such a teacher ought certainly be one who likes boys and girls; that such a teacher ought to be one who is creative, inventive, imaginative with a welcoming attitude toward new adventure and new experience; one who likes things new and different. Such a teacher ought to be the kind of person who doesn't have to win and doesn't have to hit back. Certainly a junior high-school teacher should be able to listen. One spokesman for junior high schools says that the teacher who stands before the class and talks too much is the major barrier to better teaching.

Teacher preparation programs are always facing the problem of how to provide realistic experience in the pre-service program. New teachers frequently say that their preparation was sadly remote from the reality of the classroom. Perhaps one way we can help is by providing better, more intensive, laboratory experiences for the student teachers who work in our schools.

Because qualified teachers are scarce, there is a tendency to relinquish certain teaching aims. While we have to be realistic, we can be too willing to compromise. We should not settle for any course of action that cuts off the possibility of achieving our most important purposes. Unless junior high-school administrators hold out for effective junior high-school teachers, there is little hope of leading the staff toward higher ground.

The School Program

The future junior high school will plan its program in terms of the specific needs of each pupil. I can see no reason why every seventh-grade pupil should have to meet the same requirements or have the same program. If the required experiences of each pupil developed in the light of individual needs, differing requirements will be indicated.

The junior high school of the future will have a relaxed atmosphere. There will be time for teacher and pupils to plan together. For one thing, we will not see a mass exodus into the halls every 55 minutes at the sound of a bell.

Teachers will be given the time to plan and evaluate together without students in the building, such as we provide in efforts at team teaching. Since it appears that there is little relationship between quality of learning and the amount of time spent in class, we ought to see to it that teachers get this time.

As already suggested, we will be concerned about the number of pupil-teacher contacts per day. We will want to guarantee each pupil a home base where one teacher will have an opportunity to know him well. A strong home-room program, including sizeable blocks of time, is quite compatible with solid teaching of subject matter. Indeed it is a necessary means to such teaching. Learning has to be motivated. You can't teach strangers.

A few years ago experts on the junior high school were reasonably well agreed that core teaching was desirable. In part this meant that they believed in teaching pupils to solve problems. Today there is a tendency to back away from the core idea. There seem to be several reasons for this. Core teaching is difficult even though satisfying work. Competent teachers have been hard to find. It takes work to organize and schedule a school around a core program. The word has been a lightning rod that attracted criticism. But the aim to offer a meaningful program of common learnings such as the core provided is as good today as it ever was. We ought not to retreat from it as if to say that it cannot be done. The aims

in question are vital to pupils, to our society, and to our national defense effort.

Leadership

The junior high school is an institution in its own right with distinctive functions—a distinctive program and a distinctive type of staff. It is not a glorified elementary school nor a miniature senior high school. It is not the capstone of an elementary program nor a vestibule experience that prepares for senior high school. It stands on its own feet. If the junior high school is this kind of institution, we ought to move forward to provide the kind of leadership that such an institution deserves. This means, first and foremost, that we need leadership that can take the lead in staff development. Teachers in a junior high school, above all, need a brand of supervision that is knowledgeable, sympathetic, considerate, and confidence-building. There is no spot in our public school program that offers more challenge and more satisfaction as a place to work. Dr. Conant has very effectively made the point that a junior high school is likely to be about as good as its leadership.

IN CONCLUSION

Purposes come first. We cannot answer questions of method or technique unless we first define our purposes. The purposes that the junior high school is designed to accomplish are still important and ought to control the direction of the program in the future as they have in the past.

We need more and better research to give us facts on which to decide matters of practice. There is need to update our psychology of early adolescence. Unless research can lead the way to changed practice, we have nothing to go on. Any change that is contemplated should be approached only with full provision for evaluation. Issues in education cannot be "settled" on the basis of hunch. What is needed is careful experimentation so that we may know what is better and what is worse. In the meantime, change should not be created merely for the sake of change itself.

What I am trying to say is that the junior high school is good enough to be continued. Its aims are sound. Its techniques will improve. Let's not change it until we are reasonably sure we can do better. Above all, let's not mold the junior high school in the image of the senior high school, lest we find ourselves traveling full circle back to the place where we started fifty years ago.

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Seventh General Session

Tuesday, March 1, 8:15 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Presiding: Eugene S. Thomas, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Member of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

CAROUSEL, a Broadway hit—HONORING PRESIDENT CLIFF ROBINSON of the Eugene Public Schools

Presented by: South Eugene High School, Eugene, Oregon; Clifford Moffit, Principal; Edward Ragozzino, Director; Dave Sherman, Setting and Technical Director; Weston Brockway, Music

THE 1960 WORLD BOOK ENCYCLOPEDIA

This new 1960 edition of the *World Book*, published by Field Enterprises Educational Corporation, Merchandise Mart Plaza, Chicago, Illinois 54, enhances the quality standards established by its publishers through nearly half a century of publishing experience. The articles in this 20-volume set have been prepared by more than 2500 outstanding scholars and authorities in all fields of knowledge. This 20 volume set, totaling more than 11,600 pages arranges topics in alphabetical order, thus making locating information easy. More than 21,000 interesting and informative pictures, diagrams, and charts—with 4,000 of them in meaningful and functional color—and over 1,775 completely new maps are included in the set. More than 10,000 new or revised articles, over 5,000 new or completely revised biographies, and a completely revised reading and study guide form part of this new 1960 revised edition.

Eighth General Session

Wednesday, March 2, 1:00 P.M.

CIVIC AUDITORIUM

Organ Prelude: Gary A. Morris, Lewis and Clark College Conservatory, Portland, Oregon

Presiding: Cliff Robinson, Director of Secondary Education, Eugene Public Schools, Eugene, Oregon; President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Platform Guests: New Officers and Members of the Executive Committee of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Invocation: The Reverend Laurence E. Nye, First Methodist Church, Portland, Oregon

Music: Orchestra, Springfield Senior High School, Springfield, Oregon; enrollment, 1,300; Floyd Ellefson and Mary Lou Watts, Directors; Dale P. Parnell, Principal

Introduction: New President and Officers of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals

Presentation: Award to Dr. James Bryant Conant for his outstanding contribution to secondary education

PRESIDENT CLIFF ROBINSON

YOUR Executive Committee has considered, for a number of years, the advisability of inaugurating an award program recognizing those who have made outstanding contributions to secondary education.

The events of 1959 made it clear that there never was a more appropriate time. Your Advisory Council members were asked to nominate the person whom they considered had made the greatest contribution to secondary education. They were nearly unanimous in their selection. Your Executive Committee authorized the striking of a suitable plaque which shall be presented at this time to the National Association of Secondary-School Principals' Man of the Year.

Will President Jim (James E.) Nancarrow and First Vice President Jim (James D.) Logsdon and Second Vice President Gene (Eugene) Thomas please escort Dr. Conant to the lectern?

Dr. Conant—You established yourself as one of this country's great educators many years ago. The secondary-school principals are pleased that one of your stature and understanding has seen fit to devote his time and energies to our first love—the secondary school. You hold a unique position in American education. It has been said that you are the only



EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE OF THE NASP

Reading from left to right: G. Mason Hall, member; Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary; James D. Logsdon, First Vice President; James E. Nancarrow, President; Eugene S. Thomas, Second Vice President; and John M. Sexton; Calloway Taulbee, and Samuel M. Graves, members.



James E. Nancarrow, the newly elected President of the NASSP, poses for a picture with Dr. James B. Conant who was given an award for his outstanding contributions to secondary education.—*Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee*



Dr. Ellsworth Tompkins, NASSP Executive Secretary (left), congratulates James E. Nancarrow upon his election as NASSP President and G. Mason Hall as a new member of the NASSP Executive Committee.—*Photo courtesy of Edmund Y. Lee*

contemporary American of international renown as a scientist, university president, and statesman who understands our secondary schools.

At a time when we are being condemned by lay and professional critics alike, it was you who gave assurance to the American public that their schools were pretty good after all. We believe that secondary education stands on the threshold of a new era of public and professional confidence and support.

Time Magazine in its September 14 issue gave you the title of Inspector General. I hope you won't mind my using this title again and saying—so it is to you—Our Inspector General—that the more than 23 thousand members of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals present this citation for restoring, to us and to our public, faith and confidence in the quality and in the potential of our secondary schools.

(reading of the CITATION):

In recognition of his great interest in and service to the secondary schools of the United States of America
The National Association of Secondary-School Principals presents this citation to

JAMES BRYANT CONANT

for his outstanding contribution to secondary education.

CLIFF ROBINSON
President

ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS
Executive Secretary

Portland, Oregon
March 2, 1960

Address:

INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPMENT AND THE NATIONAL NEED— A FALSE ANTITHESIS

JAMES BRYANT CONANT

IN THIS year of John Dewey's Centennial Celebration, it may be appropriate for me to open my remarks by reminding you of the third paragraph of Dewey's *The Child and the Curriculum*, written in 1899.

The fundamental factors in the educative process are an immature, undeveloped being; and certain social aims, meanings, values incarnate in the matured experience of the adult. The educative process is the due interaction of these forces. Such a conception of each in relation to the other as facilitates completest and freest interaction is the essence of educational theory.

James B. Conant is Director of A Study of the American High School, 588 Fifth Avenue, New York 36, New York.

Dewey then goes on to say how easy it is to make antagonists of the two factors and, instead of seeing education as a whole, to set up such false antitheses as the child *versus* the curriculum. "What, then, is the problem?" he asks, and answers, "It is just to get rid of the prejudicial notion that there is some gap in kind (as distinct from degree) between the child's experience and the various forms of subject-matter that make up the course of study." And a few paragraphs later comes his famous statement: "Just as two points define a straight line, so the present standpoint of the child and the facts and truths of studies define instruction. It is continuous reconstruction moving from the child's present experience out into that represented by the organized bodies of truth we call studies."

As I have looked at the educational process in our public schools during the last few years, it has become quite clear that the locus of the "child's present experience" is in the kindergarten and the first three or four grades; the locus of "the organized bodies of truth we call studies" is the university. And as to the nature of the studies, Dewey, in the same little volume, wrote as follows:

The adult mind is so familiar with the notion of logically ordered facts that it does not recognize—it cannot realize—the amount of separating and reformulating which the facts of direct experience have to undergo before they can appear as a "study" or branch of learning. A principle, for the intellect, has had to be distinguished and defined; facts have had to be interpreted in relation to this principle, not as they are in themselves. They have had to be regathered about a new center which is wholly abstract and ideal. All this means a development of a special intellectual interest. It means ability to view facts impartially and objectively; that is, without reference to their place and meaning in one's own experience. It means capacity to analyze and to synthesize. It means highly matured intellectual habits and the command of a definite technique and apparatus of scientific inquiry. The studies as classified are the product, in a word, of the science of the ages, not of the experience of the child.

The weakness of the "old education," Dewey pointed out, was the "invidious comparisons" made between the immaturity of the child and the maturity of the adult, while the danger of the "new education" (he used these words in 1899, please remember) was that it came to regard "the child's present powers and interests as something finally significant in themselves." In the sixty-one years since John Dewey delivered the lectures in Chicago from which I have so freely quoted, the education of America's *children* has been completely altered. The elementary classes I have visited this year have little or no resemblance to the primary grades I attended in the closing decade of the 19th century. As far as elementary education was concerned, the "new education," the 1900 model, triumphed over the "old education" of the 1880's before the twentieth century was far advanced. To be sure, you can undoubtedly still find residues of the nineteenth century pedagogic methods in the first grades of schools in some portions of the country. But by and large the transformation of the instruction of young children was accomplished in the United States well before World War II. As far as the education of children is concerned,

parents, teachers, and administrators today accept the "child-centered" point of view. Note I said as far as the education of children is concerned. And it was about the instruction of children, not of youth, that Dewey was writing in his earlier books.

The contrast between the first grades of today and those of sixty years ago is striking. But no great difference is to be found in college classes. Today, as in the nineteenth century, the "classified studies," "the product of the science of the ages," are presented as to an adult audience. The subject matter, of course, has vastly expanded thanks to the advances in the natural and social sciences, historical studies, philology, and archaeology. The attitude of the teachers towards their students and the subject matter remains essentially unaltered. College and university instruction is "subject matter centered" today as it was in the nineteenth century—and must be, as John Dewey would have been the first to say. For it is in the universities that scholars and scientists put "the net product of past experiences in the form which makes it most available for the future." Such a product "represents a capitalization which may at once be turned to interest. It economizes the workings of the mind in every way. Memory is less taxed because the facts are grouped together about some common principle instead of being connected solely with the varying incidents of their original discovery. . . . Reasoning is directed, because there is a certain general path or line laid out along which ideas naturally march, instead of moving from one chance association to another." (I have been quoting from *The Child and the Curriculum*!)

The elementary school today, then, is child-centered; the college, subject matter centered. And this is as it should be, I think almost all well-informed educators would declare. How and where is the transition to be made? This is the question which I think has been basically the issue in the more recent controversies between progressives and traditionalists. As matters stand at this moment, it would appear that, with certain exceptions, the senior high school is subject matter oriented, and it is in the junior high school that the child meets the curriculum, so to speak. Probably we would be wise in analyzing the situation further to trace back through the grades the study of each subject as the universities define the subject matter. If you will do this, you will more often than not find the transitional years the junior high-school years. Take the sciences: you will find physics, chemistry, and biology presented as such in most senior high schools which can afford the necessary specialized teachers. General science courses for the most part occur in grades eight and nine. Even the new approaches to mathematics are subject matter approaches. And one of the unsettled issues is how early a young person can start the study of mathematics. This problem is a problem of the junior high school.

The members of this audience will recall from their study of the history of public education, if not from their own experience, the arguments put forward in favor of junior high schools when these schools were new. But

you may have forgotten how subject matter oriented were the first curricula proposed. Turn to Alexander Inglis' book published in 1918 and you will find that algebra and foreign languages were to be optional subjects in grades seven and eight. Inglis was one of the influential members of the Commission which formulated *The Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, and his case for the junior high school is merely an amplification of what was presented in that historic document. One of the basic ideas was that those young people who dropped out of school at an early age (as the majority of pupils were doing in 1910) should have some exposure to the intellectual experiences of the senior high school. In terms of the phrases I have been using, they should receive instruction in subjects as classified by universities. In the 1920's with the change in the employment picture, the passage of child labor laws, and the raising of the school-leaving age, the situation changed. The dropouts now began to occur in grades ten, eleven, and twelve, instead of in grades eight and nine. A larger and larger percentage of youth at least started grade ten in those communities which had adequate public schools.

At the same time, the drastic changes which had occurred in the teaching methods in the lower grades were reflected in the attitude of the teachers in grades seven, eight, and nine. Shall I say the child-centered viewpoint tended to prevail, and concern with subject matter retreated towards the senior high school? At all events, as recently as ten years ago it was hard to find schools in which algebra was introduced in grade eight, even for the very bright pupils; a foreign language, usually Latin, was first offered in grade nine. In the last few years the pendulum has started to swing the other way. In school after school we find that, very recently, algebra has been moved into the eighth grade for at least some pupils and the study of a modern foreign language is being started in the lower grades. I shall come back to a discussion of these recent developments later. Let me first say a few words in general about the inevitable pedagogic arguments in the transitional seventh and eighth grades.

Take the arguments about the core curriculum and block-time as one example. Fifteen years ago, I am told, the core curriculum was to be found in a number of schools grades seven through twelve. *Education for All American Youth*, published by the Educational Policies Commission in 1944, recommended a type of core curriculum labeled "common learnings." Yet two and a half years ago when I started on my visits to senior high schools, I did not succeed in finding an example of a core curriculum in grades ten, eleven, or twelve. Only this year as I have been studying grades seven, eight, and nine—and by making special efforts—have I been able to find schools with a core curriculum. "We had it but gave it up some years ago," we have been repeatedly told by superintendents and principals. Whatever may be the merits or demerits of the various kinds of core curriculum (and Professor Alberty, you will recall, has listed six varieties), the experiences of many public schools in different sections of the country have shown the difficulties of this approach. The number one

difficulty admitted even by the most enthusiastic proponents is to find the teachers.

In theory a great deal can be said in favor of a wise mingling of subject matter in the transitional grades under the direction of a skillful teacher. Assuming a self-contained classroom in the first six years, I am prepared to argue for the use of block-time in grade seven; I would be open-minded about one teacher in the eighth grade handling English and social studies together and another teacher handling science and mathematics together *on an experimental basis*, provided, of course, highly competent teachers are available. I do recommend some blocktime in grade seven if capable and enthusiastic teachers can be found. But as matters stand today, I would recommend for all but the exceptional schools complete departmentalization in grade eight and considerable departmentalization in grade seven. In other words, I should assume that by grade eight, the delicate balance between the child-centered curriculum and the subject-centered curriculum is shifting to the subject matter tradition of the high school and university.

As I pointed out to junior high-school principals on Saturday, satisfactory programs in grades seven, eight, and nine depend on having grades of sufficient size if costs per pupil are not to become excessive. As I also emphasized, the junior high-school teacher requires a somewhat different training and a different orientation from either the elementary teacher or the senior high-school teacher. Would it be correct to state that junior high-school teachers have to be sympathetic to both the elementary school and the university attitudes toward subjects and individuals? They have the difficult problem of assisting the children through the first phase of growing up with all the attendant emotional and social difficulties. They must introduce the child to the curriculum and, to do this well, must understand thoroughly children on the one hand and at least one of the classified studies of the curriculum on the other. Theirs is a difficult undertaking, and it is no wonder that, because there is today so much uncertainty about the details of the curriculum, the eighth grade is in a state of flux.

To try and place the child in opposition to the curriculum is to draw a false antithesis. Likewise to attempt to place the development of individual needs in opposition to national needs is to draw another false antithesis. The two attempts have much in common. It is all too easy to line up hostile groups of educators, one from the faculties of arts and sciences in the universities who will shout about subject matter and the national needs, the other from schools of education who will talk only in terms of child-centered schools and individual development. And if the discussion can be brought down to brass tacks, which is often difficult, it turns out that the disagreements usually start about what ought to be the nature of instruction starting with grade seven or eight; so we are back in the junior high school. In other words, we are talking about the formal education of adolescents starting with those of age twelve or thirteen.

There is nothing new about this situation, nor anything particularly American about it. In Great Britain and on the European continent, as you know, it is at this same age that the extreme differentiation in education regularly occurs. Something less than twenty per cent of an age group are selected for entry into the pre-university schools, which eventually graduate less than ten per cent of an age group. As a matter of fact, the selection, in the past, has been made a bit younger—at ten or eleven—but one of the reform movements in certain countries is in the direction of postponing the time of selection and shortening the pre-university course correspondingly.

The European would say the nation needs university trained men and women (he would probably say "the state"), and therefore the most promising children should be selected and given a special long type of education. In free education, parents have the choice, of course, as to whether they wish to have their children apply for admission to the pre-university school. (In the Communist countries little or no choice appears to be available.) Clearly implied in the European system is the recognition of certain national needs which have become embodied traditionally in the requirements for admission to the universities. I shall not take up time by describing these requirements as compared with the requirements for an American high-school diploma in any general or comprehensive high school; the European requirements are heavily weighted on the linguistic side. But what must be remembered, though it usually is not, is that these requirements are comparable to what might be required in this country for admission to a post-graduate law school, a graduate school of arts and sciences, or a medical school. There are no colleges in Europe.

In the United States we have so many and so great a variety of colleges and universities that it is nonsense to think of having college entrance requirements set a pattern for our schools. (As a former college president I would say "nonsense"; as high-school principals you would probably say "vicious nonsense.") We cannot look to the colleges to set the pattern as the universities do in Europe, and probably everyone here would rejoice at this fact. We have national needs all the same, and they are different today from what they were a generation earlier; that is, they are different if you agree to talk specifics and leave generalities aside. Of course, we need today, as we have throughout our history, a body of citizens who are committed to our form of government and who, to some degree, are willing to be active participants in local government at least. We need honest political leaders at every level who understand the democratic process and desire to move our society each decade towards those goals which are implied by such phrases as "equality of opportunity," "equality of status," "freedom of expression," "tolerance," and "organized concern for human welfare." For years, public school people have been endeavoring to educate future voters along such lines (and with considerable success). In the *Purposes of Education in American Democracy*, published by the Educational Policies Commission in 1938,

a list of objectives was set forth under the headings "Human Relationship" and "Civic Responsibility" which cover in more specific terms those aspects of the national need to which I have just been referring.

As events in Europe within our lifetime have all too clearly demonstrated, the greatest single need of a free society is a widespread determination among the citizens to defend the basic principles of that society against external and internal foes. A spirit of freedom coupled with an understanding of the nature of our governmental machinery and an interest in improving this machinery is essential for the continuation of a government based on the consent of the governed. This paramount national need tends to be forgotten in these days, at least by some of the more violent critics of American public education.

How to improve the education of *all* American youth in order to meet this need is no easy topic to handle, and I do not propose to pursue it further here this afternoon. One thing is clear, however: there is no conflict, real or apparent, between fulfilling this need and the self-realization of every individual through education. An apparent conflict arises only when we turn to the national needs which have been generated since World War II by the increasingly threatening international situation.

We live in a deeply divided world in an age of thermonuclear bombs and inter-continental rockets. We are faced with a powerful, aggressive bloc of countries, with Sino-Soviet imperialism. However we choose to label the struggle that has been going on since 1945—"cold war" or "competitive co-existence"—the place of the United States in the world has determined and will continue to determine our collective activities in a way that no one could have foreseen in the 1920's or the 1930's. Our national interests in the slowly developing nations of Africa and the great uncommitted countries of India, Pakistan, and the Middle East mean that we as a people are oriented overseas as never before. We need trained men and women who will undertake difficult distant missions, much as England needed men to send to far distant frontiers of the British Empire in the nineteenth century. The Americans who go overseas must have an outlook, however, quite different from that of the British civil servant of other days. They must be equally honest and equally well educated, but their outlook will reflect the ideals of our fluid democratic society and the realities of the mid-twentieth century.

The industrialization of our society has continued throughout this century with attendant urbanization and decreasing employment in agriculture. We are rapidly becoming a nation of town and city folk. Since World War II, organized research and development have had an almost revolutionary impact on our industries, so revolutionary that no one can predict with any certainty the number and kind of skilled workmen that will be needed a generation hence. Even if there were no military threat and no competition in armaments or a space race with the Soviet Union, the new emphasis on science would have repercussions on our educational system. But, tragically enough, we do live in a deeply divided world, and

a large portion of the national budget goes for weapons and their accessories. The rapid changes in weapon technology put a high premium on our having scientists and engineers as able as those of any nation. A realization of this connection between our survival as a free nation and the quality of our applied scientific effort was the basis for the somewhat panicky attempts at re-assessing our schools and colleges after Sputnik I and Sputnik II. Such concern was not even thought of in the 1930's. It is a factor we cannot ignore in our discussions of education in the 1960's.

Off and on for thirty years or more, various educators have deplored the fact that many promising young people never go on to study in a college or a university. It is only since World War II, however, that we as a nation have come to realize how important it is for our future that all the potential professional talent in a generation be developed through formal education. We still lack adequate information as to the fraction of our academically talented youth the nation over who stop their education when they finish high school. I have been shocked by the evidence I have found here and there as to the number of apparently able youth who do not embark on post-high-school education. The blocks are not all financial. There are many other factors—family attitude, lack of understanding as to what opportunities may be open. To be sure, well over a third of an age group now enter some college or university, but any well-informed educator knows that included in this group are many who do not have the capacity for advanced university work. The places of some of these might well be taken by the more capable youth who do not now attend any college or university.

I do not propose to discuss here the question of whether all, or almost all, American youth can profit from full-time education through grades thirteen or fourteen or how such instruction should be organized. I do venture to remind those of you who have read my first report—*The American High School Today*—of my concern with the students who in high school are enrolled in business and vocational courses. Those educational reformers who wish to throw practical courses out of the high school are, to my mind, talking nonsense. To be sure, there are serious problems as to how vocational courses, particularly for boys, should be modified to meet the altered industrial situation locality by locality.

It is not in this area, however, that one meets the false antithesis which is the subject of my remarks this afternoon. It is rather in connection with the high-school and college education of those boys and girls who have the capacity to become doctors, lawyers, scientists, engineers, and scholars in the humanities and social sciences that one runs into a tendency to place the welfare of the individual in opposition to the welfare of society. Yet, as the authors of *The Purposes of Education in American Democracy* wrote more than twenty years ago: "The ancient and artificial antithesis between the individual and society and the concept of a perpetual struggle between the two is not supported by analysis."

My time is coming to an end, so let me be specific. The national need today for as much talent as possible in the natural sciences must not result in a diminution of the quality of men and women in the other professions which also require a long post-high-school education and, hence, certain kinds of talent. Therefore, we must hope that every boy or girl who, in the high-school years, shows promise of being able to complete successfully a professional course of university study will enter upon such a course. The implications of such hopes for a scholarship policy I have not time to explore this afternoon. But the implications for the policy of the guidance officers in the junior and senior high schools I venture to underline as strongly as I can. The type of student I have designated as the "academically talented" should be urged by the guidance officers to elect during the high-school years as much mathematics and science as possible (these courses in addition to, and not at the expense of, English and social studies). Why the urgency? Because unless a solid foundation in science and mathematics is obtained in the high-school years, many doors are closed at the college level. It is difficult, if not impossible, for a student to consider engineering, science, medicine, and certain branches of social science if he leaves high school with only a minimum exposure to mathematics.

Does the sort of strong advice of a counselor which I have just recommended go contrary to the educational objectives embodied in such phrases as "individual development" or "self-realization"? Not according to my view. Turn to the Educational Policies Commission document to which I have just referred. Under the heading "The Objectives of Self-Realization," we find thirteen entries. To my mind none of them are negated by the action I am advocating for the guidance officer. Quite the contrary. The first item under the heading "The Objectives of Self-Realization" reads "The Inquiring Mind: The Educated Person Has an Appetite for Learning." What I am advocating is that this appetite be whetted and the hunger then appeased. Mind you, I am not advocating, and have never advocated, *requiring* even the most able to take more than the amount of mathematics and science prescribed for all. (This might be not more than one year of math and two of science, grade nine through twelve.) I am talking about elective courses in the senior high school and the kind of advice that counselors should give. Since this is advice, allowance can be made for the very exceptional student who has truly creative, artistic ability and who might well be advised to go on to a conservatory or an art school.

The full self-realization of a boy or girl who can handle mathematics with ease will take place only if mathematics is pursued as a formal study for some years. If a basketball coach sees a boy well over six feet tall with good coordination, he will urge the boy to try out for the basketball team for his own good and for the welfare of the team and school. The same reasoning should hold true for a boy or girl with talent in mathematics and science. His or her own welfare and that of the nation call

for the development of this talent. I would also make the same statement about students with talent for foreign languages, though I would not have made it in the 1930's. For example, the contraction of the world through jet airplanes has affected both the conditions of self-realization and the national need. In 1938 the Educational Policies Commission described the development of the skill of reading as "a letter of introduction to the great minds in all parts of the world and in all periods of time." Then comes an interesting sentence: "To this ability should be added whenever possible the ability to read in other languages, although the availability of translations of practically all important writings makes the possession of a second reading language a matter of less than primary importance and one which need be undertaken only by those students who have at their disposal a relatively long period of time." Note that there is no reference to speaking a foreign language. Those were the days when it took a minimum of five days to cross the Atlantic; now the journey takes hardly more than the same number of hours. Those were the days of isolationism. Today hundreds of thousands of Americans (military and civilian) are on duty in foreign countries. The foreigner who can converse with the inhabitants and read the daily newspapers is in quite a different category from the foreigner who must use an interpreter for all but the most trivial requests.

I shall not repeat all the arguments in favor of a young person's obtaining something approaching a mastery of one modern foreign language prior to graduating from high school. It seems clear that the objectives of self-realization and the national need coincide completely. One who has access to the culture of another nation has far greater "mental resources for the use of leisure" (one of the EPC objectives) than those who can read only English.

Two years ago more than one public school official indicated in conversation that I was pushing a hopeless cause when I advocated that the academically talented student study a foreign language for four years. But indications are otherwise today. The idea of introducing the study of a modern foreign language in the lower grades is spreading like wild fire throughout the United States. Enthusiasm for the new "American approach to the teaching of a modern foreign language" is to be found in many cities and suburban towns. At the risk of vastly oversimplifying a complicated subject, I venture to define the "American approach" as one based on a hearing-speaking introduction to the language and to contrast it with the traditional or European method which starts with translation and the memorization of vocabulary. The traditional method, of course, should eventually develop a proficiency to speak the language in question. The Modern Language Association has been sponsoring what I am calling the new American approach, which has incorporated in it many of the advances made by the structural linguists. I think it is worth while to emphasize the contrast between this revolutionary approach and the traditional approach, for the difference has important consequences for

the whole setup of a school system. The proponents of the American approach claim that, in a given number of years, a pupil will proceed much further in a language than would be the case with the traditional approach, and, furthermore, the pupil starts learning to think in the language almost before starting to read or write it. Eventually the goal of both methods is the same; namely, a mastery of the language.

The proponents of the American method feel that the instruction should start preferably in the third grade and certainly in the seventh or eighth grade, though if the introduction to the first foreign language must be postponed until the ninth or tenth grade, the method can still apply. The case for starting a foreign language by the American method in the third grade is based on the fact that children of this age are much less self-conscious than in grade seven and are more ready to respond to a teacher speaking the foreign language and enter into conversation with the teacher and fellow pupils. It also seems clear that the younger a boy or girl starts a foreign language, the easier it is to acquire a good accent, provided, of course, that the teacher herself has good accent. (It would be an understatement to say that this is an important proviso for school administrators to bear in mind!) However, introducing a foreign language in grade three is expensive and, the country over, would require far more teachers than are likely to be available for many years. Therefore, I am inclined to think that only if a community has the funds, public opinion so desires, and really qualified teachers can be obtained should instruction start in grade three; otherwise it should start in grade seven or eight.

I think that the school administrators should make certain that the public understands that this new demand for introducing foreign languages in the lower grades carries with it certain dangers. While no one can be sure now how large a fraction of a typical class has the ability to study a foreign language to a point approaching master in the twelfth grade, it seems quite clear that not everyone will be able to carry the study far enough to obtain real profit even by the use of this new American method. The American public is always anxious for educational miracles, some royal and easy road to learning, and I am worried lest the words of the proponents of the American method may be misunderstood. Parents may come to think that their children can all become bilingual in French, for example, by the time they graduate from high school without doing any hard work. This is far from being the case.

The second danger which already manifests itself in some schools I have visited is that there will be a failure at the senior high-school level to take advantage of the competence developed in the junior high school by the use of the new American approach. There are many senior high-school foreign language teachers who have not yet transformed their methods of instruction to correspond to the American approach. Such teachers will probably not be able to take advantage of what has been accomplished in the junior high school.

In considering the special problem of instruction in a modern foreign language, I may appear to have wandered far from the topic of my address. But I venture to believe I have not. In no subject matter area is it clearer that a course of study which will benefit an individual in his or her development will likewise add to the treasure house of national skills. The United States needs citizens with competence in a foreign language; there are many ways in which such a person may be called on to use his skills. An individual who has mastered one modern foreign language has a new vista in the field of the humanities opened before him. He is likewise in a position to learn a second language in a relatively short time. Each new language he acquires broadens his horizons; new possibilities of reading and travel unfold before him. Likewise his potential value to the nation increases with the development of his skills. In short, in this field as, I believe, in all the others those who seek to put the national need in opposition to individual development are guilty of drawing a false antithesis.

AUSTIN, D. B., and NOBLE GIVIDEN. *The High-School Principal and Staff Develop the Master Schedule*. New York Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University. 1960. 119 pp. Sets forth certain criteria for making a functional master schedule, discusses processes necessary for this master schedule, reviews problems encountered, and describes some promising new developments.

PATTERSON, FRANKLIN. *High Schools for a Free Society*. Glencoe, Illinois: The Free Press. 1960. 93 pp. \$1. This study conducted by the Tufts University Civic Educational Center under grants of the Ford Foundation discusses the American high school today—and tomorrow; high purposes and unclear priorities; studies and projects in civic education; approaches to citizenship education; and citizenship education for the future. In the preface it says, "American secondary schools need the support and encouragement of interested citizens in finding the best way to provide youth with civic education for today and tomorrow."

Teaching Reading in the High School in Language Arts, Social Studies, Science, Mathematics, and Industrial Arts. Lawrence: Dean of the School of Education, University of Kansas. 1960 (February). 47 pp. This booklet describes reading skills and methods of teaching them and presents a summary of 18 research investigations in reading in grades 7 to 12 that were made at the University of Kansas.

Part III

The National Advisory Council Meeting

Sunday, February 28, 1960, 8:30 A.M.

GRAND BALLROOM, MULTNOMAH HOTEL, PORTLAND, OREGON

Chairman: Cliff Robinson, President, NASSP, Director of Secondary Education, Eugene Public Schools, Eugene, Oregon

Secretary: Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary of NASSP

PROGRAM

8:30 A.M.—Opening prayer by *Dr. Galen Jones*, Director of the Council for Advancement of Secondary Education's Study on Economic Education, an NASSP project.

8:32 A.M.—Breakfast

8:50 A.M.—Roll call by regions—Executive Committee

9:00 A.M.—Introductions of central office staff—*Cliff Robinson*

9:05 A.M.—Purpose and functions of National Advisory Council—*Cliff Robinson*

9:07 A.M.—Award of Certificates of Appreciation—*Cliff Robinson*

The following persons were granted award certificates in appreciation for their work in increasing membership in the NASSP in their states 25 per cent or more over last year or having obtained a membership in the NASSP in their states equal to 75 per cent or more of the total number of public secondary schools in their states:

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W. O. Briscoe, Principal, Emma Sansom High School, Gadsden

J. C. Blair, Director, Division of Secondary Education, State Department of Education, Montgomery

Sam P. Jones, Principal, High School, Dothan

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Harold McNabb, Principal, High School, Albany

Hawaii Association of Secondary-School Principals

Isamu Miyoshi, Principal, Kauai High School, Lihue

Mrs. Barbara S. Mant, Vice Principal, Kauai High School, Lihue

Cecil K. Dotts, Deputy District Superintendent, Oahu District, Department of Public Instruction, Honolulu

Illinois Association of Secondary-School Principals

Lee D. Pigott, Associated Director of the Commission on the Experimental Study of the Utilization of the Staff in the Secondary School, an NASSP project, 1176 West Marietta Street, Decatur

Paul J. Houghton, Assistant Superintendent, Niles Township High School, Skokie

Hugh A. Dollahan, Principal, Township High School, Lawrenceville

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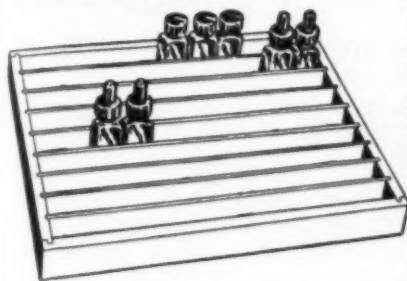
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9:45 A.M.—Introduction of the following nominees for member of Executive Committee—*George E. Shattuck*, Past President of NASSP

California

CHARLES S. MORRIS, JR., Principal, Junior High School, Eureka

Idaho

GEORGE H. FIELDS, Assistant Superintendent for Secondary Education, Boise Public Schools, Boise

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9:50 A.M.—Introduction of Committee Chairmen—*Ellsworth Tompkins*

Cliff Skinner, Portland Convention Committee

Delmas F. Miller, Curriculum Planning and Development

William T. Gruhn, Junior High School Education

Robert L. Foose, National Council of the National Honor Society and National Junior Honor Society

Albert Willis, National Contests and Activities

F. M. Peterson, School-College Relations

10:20 A.M.—Introduction of *Cliff Fagan*, Executive Secretary, National Federation of State High-School Athletic Association—*Albert Willis*

10:30 A.M.—Proposed Amendment to Constitution on tax-exempt status for NASSP—*Cliff Robinson*

10:35 A.M.—Introduction of *Charles C. Holt*, Director, Joint Project on Testing of American Association of School Administrators, Chief State School Officers, and National Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Ellsworth Tompkins*

10:55 A.M.—Announcement of 1960 Regional Junior High School Conference—*Delmer H. Battrick*

11:00 A.M.—General Discussion from the floor

The discussion centered mainly on external testing programs and their impact on curriculum, student services, means of financial support, and commercialized connotations. Particular questions were asked about Project Talent, National Merit Examinations, Science Research Associates sponsored tests, and the basis for test fallibility.

Some time was given to a discussion of secondary-school accreditation, certain details of the California Association of Secondary-School Administrators' Accreditation Program, and of the Cooperative Study of Secondary-Schools (now the National Study of Secondary-School Evaluation).

The release of lists of student names by schools or students came up for discussion. This continuing problem was described as having new dimensions. Post-high school institutions, particularly business schools, are making rather extravagant claims as to their achievements, even to the point of guaranteeing employment to all who attend. Commercially motivated agencies or persons have thought up a new gimmick. They request a student or students to supply the list of all students. Another gimmick—they offer to pay the school for sending them a list of graduating students at so much a name. The Association was urged not to relax its efforts against the release of student lists. Members of the National Advisory Council and principals were asked to send to the Washington office any new requests for student names. The central office can then act as a clearing house.

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One other important item was discussed—the criticism of and, in some cases, attacks upon administrators. It was suggested that the Association seriously consider its role in helping to create a positive image of the secondary-school administrator. It was difficult to record the names of all National Advisory Council members making comments during the session. Among those rising to talk to the group were: Charles Holt, Grant Jensen, Abraham Lass, Goerge Shattuck, Ed Henderson, Charles Lindecamp, John Conway, Roy Lee Roberts, Ray Witt, William H. Warner, Leib Richmond, W. W. Briscoe, President Cliff Robinson, Walter G. Patterson, Donald C. Manlove, Eugene S. Thomas, Grant W. Jessen, W. H. Mackey, John M. Graves, Lloyd Trump, Ed Damon, and Ellsworth Tompkins.

BUTLER, K. B.; G. C. LIKENESS; and E. S. A. KORDEK. *Layout Scrapbook*. Mendota, Illinois: Butler Lypo-Design Research Center, West Washington Road. 1958. 112 pp. \$4.00. This is Book No. 5 in a series of practical handbooks on publication layout aimed at enlarging the scope of an editor's work. The book is intended primarily as an at-the-fingertips source book and a companion to handbook No. 3, *101 Usable Publication Layouts* (\$4.00). In the *Scrapbook* are 21 examples of pages with no illustrations; 10 with one illustration; 19 with 2; 15 with 3; 15 with 4; and 16 with 5 or more illustrations.

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Part IV

Annual Business Meeting

Tuesday, March 1, 4:30 P.M.

AUDITORIUM OLD MAIN, PORTLAND STATE COLLEGE

Presiding: Cliff Robinson, Director of Secondary Education, Eugene Public Schools, Eugene, Oregon; President of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals.

Secretary: Ellsworth Tompkins, Executive Secretary, NASSP.

The Annual Business Meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals was called to order by the presiding officer at 4:30 P.M. Monday, March 1, in the Auditorium, Old Main Building, Portland State College, Portland, Oregon.

CONSTITUTION

1. First item of business was the *proposed constitutional amendment* to qualify the Association for tax exemption. A ruling by counsel for the National Education Association made it necessary for the NASSP to secure tax-exempt status in order to receive grants from foundations and other sources. Part of the procedure to secure Internal Revenue Service approval of tax-exempt status for the National Association of Secondary-School Principals required a clear statement of disposition of Association funds in the event of dissolution of the NASSP. These funds must be allocated to a charitable or educational organization having tax-exempt status. It was made clear that the proposed constitutional amendment covers a technical point and has no other purpose.

As the statement of the proposed constitutional amendment was published in the NASSP BULLETIN, January 1960, to qualify for submission at this business meeting, a two-thirds vote of members attending the annual business meeting can ratify the proposed amendment.

The presiding officer submitted to the members the proposed constitutional amendment for a vote. It was moved, duly seconded, and approved unanimously.

Here follows the approved amendment:

Article VII, Section 2, Finance

"No part of any income, revenue, and grants of or to the Association shall inure to the material or pecuniary benefit of any member, officer, or any private individual (except that reasonable compensation may be paid for services rendered in connection with one or more of its purposes), and no member, officer, or any private individual shall be entitled to share in the distribution of any of the assets of the Association on its dissolution

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or liquidation. In the event of such dissolution or liquidation, the assets of the Association, after payments of debts and obligations, shall be transferred to the National Education Association of the United States for its charitable and educational purposes, provided the said National Education Association is then exempt from Federal income taxes as a charitable and/or educational organization. If the said National Education Association is not then so exempt, the net assets, as aforesaid, shall be transferred to an organization with Federal tax exemption for charitable and educational uses and purposes similar to those of this Association, which exempt organization shall be designated by the final Executive Committee of the Association."

RESOLUTION

2. Resolution on recommendations to secondary schools regarding participation in external testing programs:

Whereas, the multiplicity of national and statewide testing programs is adding to the load of principals, counselors, and teachers, and making increasing demands on the time and energy of pupils, and

Whereas, school programs are frequently being judged on the basis of national testing programs, and

Whereas, national testing programs often have the effect of dominating curriculum and teaching, and

Whereas, the National Defense Education Act is encouraging schools to gather more test data without adequate attention to the purposes of testing and the uses of results, and

Whereas, many colleges and universities are using scores on national testing programs to screen applicants for admission, and

Whereas, patrons, parents, and students are increasingly anxious about scores on national scholarship tests,

Be It Resolved that national testing programs be carefully studied by principals and staffs for impact on educational goals and objectives at the school level before any decision is made to participate or use such results as a basis for evaluation.

Be It Further Resolved that, until the findings of the Joint Committee on Testing are published, the National Association of Secondary-School Principals urge schools to exercise autonomy in rejecting national testing programs that fail to meet locally accepted objectives and goals.

The above resolution was read by James D. Logsdon, who moved its adoption. Charles P. Lindcamp seconded it. The presiding officer put the motion to a vote of the house. It was passed unanimously.

ELECTION OF OFFICERS

3. George Shattuck, Chairman of the Board of Nominators, presented the action of the Board taken at its meeting in Room 101, Old Main, Portland State College, on Monday, February 29, at 4:30 P.M. He ex-

plained that Calloway, Taulbee, John Sexton, and Samuel Graves, representative (respectively) Regions 6, 3, and 1 had previously been elected and therefore were not up for election at the Business Meeting.

George Shattuck moved the following slate of officers for election for 1960-61.

For President

JAMES E. NANCARROW, Principal, Upper Darby High School, Upper Darby, Pennsylvania—representing Region 2 (Middle States Area)

For 1st Vice President

JAMES D. LOGSDON, Superintendent-Principal, Thornton Township High Schools and Junior College, Harvey, Illinois—representing Region 5 (North Central—Middle Area)

For 2nd Vice President

EUGENE S. THOMAS, Principal, Central High School, Kalamazoo, Michigan—representing Region 4 (North Central—Upper Area)

Charles P. Lindecamp seconded the motion. It passed unanimously.

The candidate for member of the Executive Committee voted by the Board of Nominators for Region 7 was *G. Mason Hall*, Principal of the Senior High School, Edmonds, Washington. Before moving ahead to action on the nomination of Mr. Hall, the presiding officer called for other nominations from the floor. As two duly qualified men were so nominated, the presiding officer ruled a ballot in order, after consultation with the Executive Committee. After considerable discussion, the two additional nominations were withdrawn. It was moved by Samuel Graves and seconded by C. A. Jackson that *G. Mason Hall* be elected to membership on the Executive Committee for Region 7. The motion passed unanimously.

PROCEDURES FOR THE BOARD OF NOMINATORS

4. It was moved by Kenneth Bick, and duly seconded, that the NAASP Executive Committee develop more specific procedures for the Board of Nominators to follow in its annual meeting. Discussion on the motion revealed necessary action to clarify policy on the Board of Nominators meeting. It was felt that the Board should not vote on specific procedures to follow year by year, or to vote on seating substitute delegates to the meeting. The presiding officer placed the motion to a vote. It passed without a dissenting vote.

There being no other business to come before the meeting, the presiding officer adjourned the Annual Business Meeting of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at 5:20 P.M.

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CERTIFICATE

We have audited the accounts and records of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals for the Fiscal Year Ended June 30, 1959. Our audit was made in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards and accordingly included such tests of the accounting records and such other auditing procedures as we considered necessary in the circumstances.

In our opinion, the accompanying balance sheet presents fairly the financial condition of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals at June 30, 1959, in conformity with generally accepted accounting principles.

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New York State Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Dudley C. Snyder*, Executive Secretary, 152 Washington Avenue, Albany 10, New York.

New York City High-School Principals Association—*Vincent McGarrett*, Principal, High School of Commerce, 155 W. 65th Street, New York, New York.

New York City Junior High-School Principals Association—*Benjamin F. Davis*, Principal, Springfield Gardens Junior High School, Springfield and Merrick Boulevards, Springfield Gardens 13, New York.

New York City Vocational High-School Principals Association—*Jacob H. Raphael*, Principal, Thomas' A. Edison Vocational High School, 165-65 84th Avenue, Jamaica 33, New York.

North Carolina Division of Principals of the NCEA—*E. F. Johnson*, Principal, High School, Ayden, North Carolina.

Department of Secondary-School Principals of NCTA (Colored)—*M. L. DeVane*, Principal, Freedman High School, Lenoir, North Carolina.

North Dakota Principals Association—*Otto L. Bernhofs*, Assistant Principal, Fargo High School, 506-23rd Avenue, North, Fargo, North Dakota.

Ohio High-School Principals Association—*Charles L. Fox*, Principal, Springfield Senior High School, 700 S. Limestone Street, Springfield, Ohio.

Oklahoma Secondary-School Principals Association—*J. Frank Malene*, Principal, Northwest Classen High School, 2801 N.W. 27th & May Sts., Oklahoma City 27, Oklahoma.

Oregon Association of Secondary-School Principals—*John S. Conway*, 106 State Library Building, Salem, Oregon.

Pennsylvania Association of Secondary-School Principals—*S. P. Bomgardner*, Principal, New Cumberland Junior High School, New Cumberland, Pennsylvania.

Rhode Island Secondary-School Principals Association—*Edward F. McLaughlin*, Principal, Central High School, Providence, Rhode Island.

South Carolina Association of Secondary-School Principals (White)—*E. M. Culpepper*, S. C. Assn.-Sch. Administrators, 1510 Gervais Street, Columbia, South Carolina.

South Carolina High-School Principals Association (Colored)—*C. C. Woodson*, Principal, Carver High School, Spartanburg, South Carolina.

South Dakota Association of Secondary-School Principals—*George W. Janke*, Principal, Senior High School, 410 East 5th Avenue, Mitchell, South Dakota.

Tennessee Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Howard G. Kirksey*, Dean of Instruction, Middle Tennessee State College, Murfreesboro, Tennessee.

Texas Association of Secondary-School Principals—*W. I. Stevenson*, Principal, Milby Senior High School, Houston, Texas.

Texas Principals Association (Colored)—*Garfield Hill*, Principal, Weldon High School, Gladewater, Texas.

Utah Secondary-School Principals Association—*Lerne Winget*, Director of Secondary Education, 223 State Capitol, Salt Lake City, Utah.

Vermont Headmasters Association—*Robert F. Pierce*, Principal, High School, Northfield, Vermont.

Virginia Department of Secondary-School Principals (White)—*Clarence H. Spain*, Principal, Binford Junior High School, 1701 Floyd Avenue, Richmond 20, Virginia.

Virginia Teachers Association (Colored)—*J. F. Banks*, Principal, Christiansburg Institute, Cambria, Virginia.

Washington Association of Secondary-School Principals—*George Hermes*, Principal, Irene S. Reed High School, 7th and Alder, Shelton, Washington.

Washington Junior High-School Principals' Association—*C. E. Halverson*, Principal, Libby Junior High School, East 2900 First Avenue, Spokane 31, Washington.

West Virginia Secondary-School Principals' Commission—*John F. Santrock*, Principal, Nitro High School, Nitro, West Virginia.

Wisconsin Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Harold L. Pankert*, Supervising Principal, Kohler Public Schools, 230 School Street, Kohler, Wisconsin.

Wyoming Association of Secondary-School Principals—*Merritt B. Jensen*, Principal, High School, Cheyenne, Wyoming.

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